The Outlook

NOVEMBER 1, 1916

Offices, 381 Fourth Avenue, New York

AN OPEN LETTER TO THE READERS OF THE OUTLOOK

With the beginning of the new year (with the issue of January 3, 1917) The Outlook will come to you in a new and more attractive dress. Within the office, in anticipation of this, we have been talking of "the new Outlook." As a matter of fact, however, there will be no change in the character of this journal, its purpose or its policy, and when you see the first number of the new year you will also find the face of The Outlook familiar. Its appearance will not be so much that of a new Outlook as of a magnified Outlook.

You have doubtless by this time received from this office a communication telling you that on and after February 1 next the yearly subscription price of The Outlook will be four dollars instead of three dollars. The necessity for that change in price is due to the increase in the cost of publication, due in turn to the great advance in the price of paper. One of the effects of the European war most severely felt on this side of the Atlantic is that higher price of paper of all kinds, but particularly of the paper used by books, newspapers, and periodicals. In the manufacturing cost of producing The Outlook the paper bill is much the largest single item. Naturally, therefore, an increase of over fifty per cent in the cost of paper means a very material increase in the total cost of production. The more that a periodical has been giving for value received, the more seriously does this increase in cost affect it.

In the case of The Outlook there are only two conceivable ways of meeting this increased cost amounting to many thousands of dollars. One way is to give poorer quality. This we will not do. The other is to increase the price; and because this is the only alternative, we choose it.

At the same time we have resolved, not only to avoid lowering the quality, but actually to make it better; and, fortunately, we have found a way to do so. The answer to our search is the new dress of The Outlook. And this is not merely a new dress, but, we believe, an intrinsic improvement.

In the first place, the page will be larger. And with this enlarged page, which in area of paper is less than twice the size of the present Outlook, it will be possible to print on each page twice the amount of reading matter. In other words, for the same amount of paper used our readers will receive more than they have received heretofore. At the same time, the new type will be larger and clearer and the page more beautiful typographically.

The new form of The Outlook will allow for better illustration; but the illustration will remain, as heretofore, a servant and not a master of the text. As heretofore, The Outlook will be edited in the belief that its readers desire a clear, concise, thoughtful, and interesting interpretation of current life; and those who wish to be informed concerning the important happenings of the world of to-day and to understand them will continue to find those happenings recorded and interpreted just as they always have been.

During the years we who make The Outlook and you who read it have come, we believe, to know one another. We value your taste and your intelligence, and in making this change we believe that we have anticipated the demands of your intelligence and your taste. Three times before in its history this paper has made a material change in its form and appearance, but those of its readers who have remained with it longest can best testify that, however The Outlook may have changed its physical appearance, it has retained its spirit unchanged. And this, we believe, our readers will continue to testify to with the new year.

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THE WEEK

THE STORY OF THE WAR: THE FALL OF CONSTANZA AND WHAT IT MEANS

The occupation of Constanza, the one important Rumanian port on the Black Sea, by General Mackensen's forces, on October 22, was not only in itself the most valuable gain made by the Teuton forces in the Rumanian campaign, but has serious import as regards the future progress of the war in Rumania. General Mackensen's army at once advanced on the railway half the distance from Constanza westward toward the Danube, and may at any moment take possession of the great bridge across the Danube at Cernavoda, the only means of communication by rail between the Black Sea and the Rumanian capital, Bucharest. Cernavoda itself has been taken. The capture of this town and of Constanza makes it impossible for the Russian army which was expected to advance south through Rumania from the Black Sea to bring forces for that purpose by water, and also threatens the line of communication between the two great sections of the Rumanian army, one of which has been pressed back through Transylvania and is now for the most part again in Rumanian territory, the other of which is facing General Mackensen's army in the Dobrudja in the region of the Black Sea. It is not surprising that military observers, believing, as most of them do, that assistance to Rumania from the Allies' forces operating from Greece is impossible in the immediate future, think that the best and perhaps only course for Rumania is to abandon Bucharest and draw her armies together and move them northward into eastern Rumania, where they may hope to unite with the Russian army coming from the north.

As we have already pointed out, events have proved the folly and fallacy of Rumania's invasion of Transylvania when her own borders to the south were so open to attack. General Mackensen's army is said to have been made up of the best available German, Turkish, and Bulgarian troops, and to contain few Austrian units. The German comment is naturally elated in tone and lays stress on the assertion that the advance planned by Rumania and Russia through Dobrudja against the line of communication between Sofia and Constantinople has been frustrated. This may all be true, at least for the time being, but it may be said also that, however bad Rumania's plight may be, the general military situation for the Allies in the Balkan region is precisely as strong as it was before Rumania came into the war, while the terrific onslaught upon Rumania by General Mackensen and General Falkenhayn has involved a considerable German loss and the weakening of other parts of the entire war front of the Central Powers.

If the war news from the east has been dispiriting for the friends of the Allies, that from the west is most encouraging. Whether or not it is true that the German lines along the Somme and near Verdun have been drawn upon in order to attack Rumania and to hold back the Russian attack aimed at Lemberg and Kovel, it is certain that the German resistance in the west has weakened. The remarkable achievement of the French at Verdun is the most shining example of this. On one single day (October 24) the French won back from their enemies the village and fort of Douaumont, the capture of which cost the German army tens of thousands of lives at the very beginning of the Verdun campaign. Other important gains in the Verdun region on this great day were the Thiaumont position, the village of Vaux, and other points all along a front of more than four miles and extending at some points two miles in depth. Most significant of all is the statement from Paris that 3,500 prisoners were taken. If this advance should be followed up by a similar advance in the northwestern part of the Verdun situation, the French will practically be where they were when the Verdun struggle began.

The Allies' friends also have reason to rejoice at the gains of the week under consideration (October 18–25) on the Somme front. The capture by the French of positions close to Chaulnes was followed by farther advances, and the British strengthened and improved their position at several points. Here too, as in Verdun, the number of prisoners taken was remarkable; for instance, the British are reported to have taken in one day in one attack upon a single point over a thousand prisoners, and on the same occasion they made a valuable gain between the famous Schwaben redoubt and Le Sars.

To turn once more to the eastern front, the Germans claim to have definitely held up General Brusiloff's forward movement, and are confident that there will be no important

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Russian gains in this section of the field before winter sets in. It is at least true that during the week little of importance was accomplished by the Russian forces.

CASUALTIES AND "ATTRITION"

If it were possible to know definitely the total casualties of the great nations involved in the war, it might also be possible to draw deductions as to the probable length of the war and the extent to which the process of the wearing out of one group of fighting nations by the other has progressed, and at what rate it is likely to progress in the future. A new discussion has lately sprung up on this subject, growing out of certain assertions in the cable despatches.

Of these assertions the only one which is official is that given out by the British War Office, which puts the total German casualties in September as 179,884, and the total German casualties for the whole war at 3,556,018. These figures are compiled from the German official casualty lists; it will be remembered that Germany alone of the fighting nations posts its losses regularly and systematically.

On the other hand, German reports, not official, assert that the Allies' operations on the Russian and on the Somme fronts have involved a casualty list of a million each and that the total casualties of the Russians during the war are 2,000,000. These gigantic figures are not supported by details or reference to sources. A careful study of the whole question of relative losses was recently made by Mr. Frank H. Simonds in the New York "Tribune." Without following his analysis in detail, it may be reported that he puts the gross casualties of the six great Powers (Germany, Austria, France, Russia, Great Britain, and Italy) at 18,000,000. Of this enormous number about one-fourth, 4,500,000 (a number equal to the total population of Servia in 1914), represents deaths. As to the division of the total casualties, Mr. Simonds puts the losses of the four largest Allies at 10,000.000, and those of Germany and Austria at 8,000,000.

When we compare these figures with the population of the countries involved, accepting the figures given for the population of the four great Allies as 300,000,000 and for Austria and Germany as 120,000,000, the conclusion, all due allowances made, is that the Allies have lost permanently one-sixth of their man power and the Central Powers one-third of their man power. It does not matter for the correctness of these figures whether the percentage of population which a nation is able to put into the field in war is taken as ten per cent or twelve per cent, a point on which statisticians differ.

It is unsafe, however, to rest too strongly on this question of population in studying the relative loss of the two warring parties. Such a sudden and victorious attack as that just made by Germany in Rumania suggests forcibly that war is not necessarily decided on a population basis. There are many other factors—military leadership, intelligence of the private soldier, equipment, capacity for turning out munitions, superiority in strategy, and so on. On the other hand, it is unsafe to reason, as Mr. Simonds does, that the attacking side always has the heaviest losses. It is perfectly certain that at Verdun the Germans, who were the attackers, lost very much more heavily than did the French. It might seem likely that the same thing holds true of the Somme campaign, and Mr. Simonds assumes that in his statement. Facts do not bear out the theory, however. An extremely interesting despatch from the British front at the Somme last week made it clear that, while the Allies' losses were the heavier in the earlier part of this campaign and perhaps the losses were equal in August, the German losses in September have been possibly fifty per cent higher than those of the British. This is due, not only to the use of the new war machinery, the so-called tanks, which are said to have saved the lives of twenty thousand British soldiers, but to the increased surrender of German prisoners; the British alone are reported to have captured no fewer than thirty thousand. This again is due undoubtedly to the fact that the Germans have been obliged to send comparatively inferior fighting forces into the field in order to carry out their large operations elsewhere.

The attrition theory, as it is called, is still a sound theory, but it must not be expected to work with clocklike exactness or with excessive rapidity.

MR. WILSON AT SHADOW LAWN

An audience of farmers who gathered at Shadow Lawn, the President's summer residence in New Jersey, heard President Wilson, in his regular Saturday afternoon campaign speech on October 21, tell what his Admin-

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istration had done for agriculture. Mr. Wilson pointed out that the Administration's interest in the farmer was not on account of its lack of interest in other groups of citizens, but was due to the fact that the Nation and the world must be fed and that "the foundation of the physical life of every nation is found upon the farm." He charged the Republicans with "long and systematic neglect" of the farmer, and declared that they had left "an absolutely free field" for the present Administration. He illustrated his point by citing the way the tariff had been made, which he described as follows:

A special set of men who thought they could guide the Nation better than anybody else, and preferred to guide it in private, asked certain chief beneficiaries of the tariff to come together and suggest what the schedule of the tariff should be, and then to contribute the literature and the support of the orators, and also the other instrumentalities of propaganda to make the country believe that if these men who planned the tariff were rich, the rest of the country would share their riches.

"You see," said the President, "the men in the city can effect an easy concert of action. They are not scattered, as the farmers are. . . . Therefore they have come in by preference before the farmer in everything which concerns business. They have come in before him in respect of credits. . . . They have come in ahead of him in every matter where the sort of counsel that results in legislation could be effected." The President then went on to show what the Democratic Administration had done to put the farmer alongside of the business man—the Federal Reserve Act, the Rural Credits Bill, the putting of demonstrators and experts into rural counties, aid in finding markets for farm products, etc.

He summed all this up by saying that the Government had been trying to establish co-operation among the farmers. And this led him to contrast what he called "co-operation" with what he called "combination." "Co-operation," he said, "means all of us getting together; combination means some of us getting together and doing what we please." These two novel definitions—which, so far as we know, are peculiar to the President—served the President as a means of defending what the Democrats had done for united action and of attacking what the Republicans had done. He thus recounted the plans for economic and industrial mobilization—the united action on the part of engineers and scientists, for example—in order to get a survey and census of our mechanical and scientific resources. As to the pertinence of this united action with reference to war, the President spoke as follows:

I am not expecting this country to get into war. I know that the way in which we have preserved peace is objected to, and that certain gentlemen say they would have taken some other way that would inevitably have resulted in war; but I am not expecting this country to get into war, partly because I am not expecting these gentlemen to have a chance to make a mess of it.

Taking this occasion to cite the creation of the Council of National Defense, the President said that it would appeal to any intelligent person, but that "it just had not occurred to enough people" to bring it into being before. He concluded by saying that he was glad the campaign was nearly over, and that after November 7 we can say to one another, "Let us sober up." He said that our relations with the rest of the world will become more intimate in the years to come. And in the passage that concluded his address he referred to the so-called "hyphenates" by saying:

That is the reason we are putting men through the third degree in respect of where they stand with regard to love of the United States. . . . If they qualify as genuine Americans, not only in profession but in performance, then we are ready to be partners with them. . . . But if they do not, they will have to go through a period of probation.

MR. HUGHES AND THE HYPHENATES

During the campaign the supporters of the President have made a point of saying that his defeat would be a triumph on the part of the pro-Germans who have wished to punish the President for preventing an embargo on arms to the Allies, and that consequently his election is necessary for a vindication of a really American policy. Some of them have gone even further and have charged that Mr. Hughes had an understanding, if not an agreement, with a group of Germans and pro-German Irish to attack Great Britain in his campaign speeches, and to receive in return their support. In evidence of this there has been much said about Jeremiah O'Leary (whose support President Wilson had repudiated in a sharp telegram) and a number of Germans, including Mr.

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Victor Ridder, of the New York "Staats-Zeitung," and quotations from alleged statements and letters. Nothing, however, has been elicited to show any such agreement or understanding or anything like it. That Mr. Hughes received Mr. O'Leary and some others as callers upon him, as he has received hundreds of others, is admitted. In turn, some of Mr. Hughes's supporters have charged that the Democrats, or at least certain eminent Democrats, have distinctly and definitely courted the German vote, and they have cited statements and alleged private speeches in evidence. This whole aspect of the campaign has been distasteful and not without its ominous side; but both candidates can be regarded as wholly free from any responsibility for it.

Following closely upon Mr. Wilson's speech at Shadow Lawn, and upon the reiterated charges that we have referred to, Mr. Hughes, before a large audience consisting mainly of Americans of German origin, repudiated those whose allegiance to the American flag was not complete. And the New York "Times," which is a hearty supporter of Mr. Wilson and a strong opponent of Mr. Hughes, declared that this audience at Schuetzen Park, in Queens County, New York, the majority of which were of German extraction, not only showed their approval, but "arose as one man and applauded." These were Mr. Hughes's words that elicited the applause:

I want the support of every true American who believes in the principles for which I stand, whatever his race. I don't want the support of any one to whom the interest of this Nation is not supreme.

As to any person whose allegiance to our flag is not single and complete, who would not instantly champion the rights and interests of our country against any country on earth, who wants impunity for foreign aggression, or who would have the power of this Nation held captive to any foreign influence or swerved by alien machinations, let him not vote for me.

As to the claim that the issue is peace against war, Mr. Hughes said on the same occasion: "Did Vera Cruz represent peace? It is said that a vote for me is a vote for war. A vote for me is a vote for the maintenance of American rights."

MR. ROOSEVELT AND A HECKLER

Gradually drawn into the campaign more and more, Mr. Roosevelt has been speaking in the West. At Denver he paid his respects to Mr. Baker, the Secretary of War, as an "amiable pacifist," and then told of some of the things that mobilization of troops under the present Administration had involved:

After ten days of maximum effort just twelve per cent of the men were started for the border. Over thirty per cent of the Guard were found to be unfit for duty. Many of the men who started for the border had never received a single day's training. . . . I know one division in which, after three months, ten per cent of the men have not received their blouses and twenty per cent have not received their rifles.

What Mr. Roosevelt had to say about this may be summarized in his own sentence: "Mr. Wilson has not only been too proud to fight, but has also been too proud to prepare."

Mr. Roosevelt's most interesting statement, however, came out in response to a heckler. One man in the audience at Denver cried, "Hurrah for Wilson!" Mr. Roosevelt immediately turned upon him with the reply:

Yes, hurrah for Wilson and Carranza. Don't forget Woodrow's side-partner.

Hurrah for the one hundred and three babies who went down on the Lusitania.

Hurrah for the men and women murdered in Mexico.

Hurrah for Boyd and Adair and their troopers lying with their dim eyes staring upward from the Mexican desert.

Hurrah for outraged women.

Then, when you are through hurrahing for these things, think how you can be a little better American in the future.

In the course of the speech in which this interruption occurred Mr. Roosevelt referred to what Mr. Bryan has said—that before there is a war every mother in this country ought to think, "Now which of my sons do I want to have go?"

"That remark shows perfectly the workings of Mr. Bryan's mind," was Mr. Roosevelt's comment. "Imagine Washington's mother saying to her son something like this: 'Now, George, my son, you are about to hazard your life for your country. Remember, my son, safety first—safety first.'"

And Mr. Roosevelt continued:

Imagine the soldiers of Grant and Lee marching into battle with banners on which these words were emblazoned, "We're too proud to fight."

I say to you women of Colorado, before we have a war let every mother do her best that all expedients be used to avert it; let every mother see that our officials in Washington do not go

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into it idly or unjustly. But, if war must come, then I say that every mother fit to be heir of the women of the Revolution and worthy to be the mother of real Americans ought to say to all her sons:

"Go fight for your country or don't ever show your face in your home again."

As Mr. Roosevelt passed through the street a man in the crowd shouted, "We're for you, Teddy, but not for Hughes." With a bow to his admirer, Mr. Roosevelt is reported to have said, "If you're for me, you've got to be for Hughes this year."

SECRETARY BAKER STIRS UP A HORNET'S NEST

Secretary of War Baker, in attempting to defend the President's Mexican policy, has stirred up a very lively hornet's nest about his head. At Jersey City, on the night of October 16, Secretary Baker, according to a stenographic report made by the New York "Tribune," said:

Some people say they cannot understand the President's Mexican policy, and I want to tell you why. They have forgotten our own history and the Declaration of Independence, and the President has not forgotten either. Why are we impatient at the Mexicans? We say they do not respect the lives and property of our people. Perhaps they don't. We say they do not pay their honest debts. They don t. We say they are a ragamuffin lot. We say their money is not any good. That's true. It is only worth two or three cents on the dollar. We say they do not respect church property. That also is true. The amazing thing is that people never respect these things in a revolution. We had a revolution, and from the beginning to the end of that the conditions in this country were so like Mexico that it is perfectly astounding to read.

Secretary Baker then went on to tell of outrages committed by Washington's troops on the road to Valley Forge and to add that the money of the "so-called Confederation was so worthless that when they tried to make the merchants take it the latter hid their provisions in their cellars."

It never occurred to us that any comparison could be made between Washington and Villa, between the Continental Congress and the Government of the Mexican Constitutionalists. But, since an American Secretary of War has seen fit to infer that such a comparison can be made, it may perhaps be worth while to discuss it seriously.

If Secretary Baker desires information as to the general conditions in Mexico to-day, he has only to turn to the official statement of his colleague, Secretary Lansing, in his note to Carranza after the Columbus outrage. Secretary Lansing said in that plain-spoken note:

For three years the Mexican Republic has been torn with civil strife; the lives of Americans and other aliens have been sacrificed; bandits have been permitted to roam at will through the territory contiguous to the United States and to seize without punishment and without effective attempt at punishment the property of Americans; while the lives of citizens of the United States who ventured to remain in Mexican territory or to return there to protect their interests have been taken, in some cases barbarously taken, and the murderers have neither been apprehended nor brought to justice.

WHAT WASHINGTON DID TO PLUNDERERS

To compare such a state of affairs as was described in Secretary Lansing's note with the general conditions during our Revolution is as futile for partisan advantage as it is historically untrue. To think of Villa, the bloody rapist and the hero of rapists, in the same breath with the leaders of the American Revolution would almost seem impossible. It does not take any imagination to know how this murderer of men and outrager of women would have fared at the hands of Washington. We have only to turn to the history of the American Revolution to find what Washington's attitude was as expressed in black and white towards bandits and plunderers.

When General Nathanael Greene wrote to Washington and asked for permission to hang a soldier caught red-handed in the act of plunder, Washington said:

I am this moment favored with your letter of this day. I need scarcely inform you of the extreme pain and anxiety which the licentiousness of some of the soldiery has given me. Something must and shall be done, if possible, to put an effectual check to it. I entirely approve of the prompt punishment which you propose to have inflicted on the culprits in question. You will, therefore, please to order one of the soldiers detected in plundering . . . to be immediately executed.

Both General Greene's letter and Washington's answer can be found in full in General Upton's "Military Policy of the United States."

It is not surprising that Secretary Baker's

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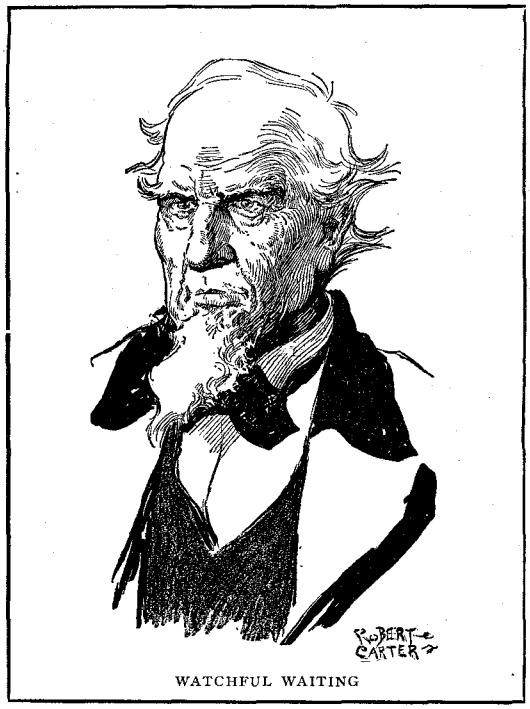
CARTOONS OF THE WEEK

Cesare in the New York Evening Post

HIS COUNSELORS

THE STRIKER HAS ENEMIES ON BOTH SIDES

Carter in the New York Evening Sun



WATCHFUL WAITING

UNCLE SAM IS PONDERING OVER THE SUBMARINE ATTACKS

Harding in the Brooklyn Eagle

EVERY ROSE HAS ITS THORN

RUMANIA'S HARD LESSON

Weed in the Philadelphia Public Ledger

WHEN GREEK MEETS GREEK

DIVIDED COUNSELS IN GREECE

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CARTOONS OF THE WEEK

From Fliegende Blätter (Berlin)

Husband: "What are you laughing about?"
Wife: "Why, it's so funny! This cook book says, 'Take a *pound* of butter, a *dozen* eggs, and a *pound* of sugar!'"

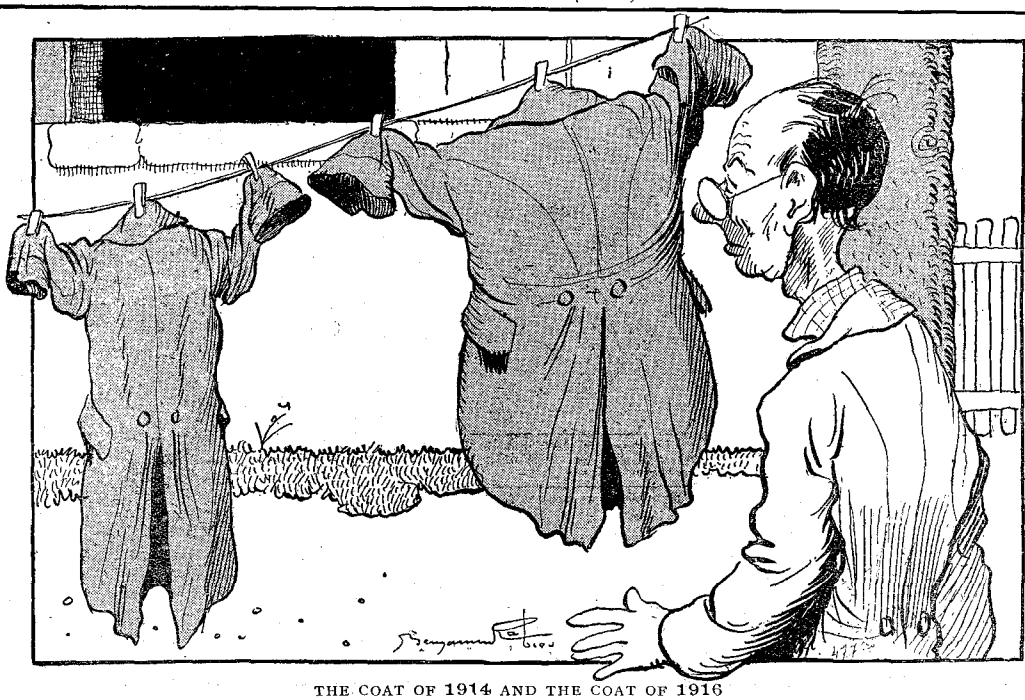
THE SHORTAGE OF FOOD IN GERMANY—

From the Sketch (London)

The Customer: "Surely these eggs are very small?"
The Shopkeeper: "Yes, mum, perhaps a little—owing to the war."

AND THE SIZE OF EGGS IN ENGLAND

From Le Pêle Mêle (Paris)



THE COAT OF 1914 AND THE COAT OF 1916

The Herr Professor: "The war is saving us so much!"

GERMANY'S HUNGER HAS LESSENED HER CONSUMPTION OF CLOTH

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remarks have aroused hostility throughout the country.

AMERICAN SOLDIERS KILLED IN SANTO DOMINGO

While the Presidential campaign is under way in the United States on the issue raised by the Administration's supporters, that the President has "kept us out of war," American soldiers have been killed in another little war in Santo Domingo.

Since May 6 ten Americans have been killed in that country, not including those (among them two officers) that fell on October 24.

The duty of the United States to maintain order in Santo Domingo is undoubted, and the exercise of force when necessary to maintain order is justifiable. Whether the power of the United States was applied discreetly is a question we are not prepared to answer, but it is evident that there has been more war on the part of the United States in Santo Domingo as well as in Mexico than there was under the last two Administrations. All indications point to the conclusion that when Santo Domingo was used as a source for rewards to be given to political workers the way was opened for friction which did not exist before.

THE NATION'S CAPITAL AND THE NATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Though a minor issue in the campaign, the question of the preservation of the beauty of the city of Washington is not unimportant.

Civilization is measured largely by its monuments of art. To-day Americans as well as Europeans are deploring the destruction of beautiful buildings by war and are condemning European nations for destroying those works of art. And yet we who make this criticism have not even gone so far as the European peoples, for we have not created works of art of any such value, whereas Europe is filled with such artistic monuments. Worse than that, we are creating conditions in this country that make the creation of beautiful buildings and beautiful places difficult. We have been marring our own cities.

One exception has been the city of Washington. That was planned in the time of General Washington by the great architect L'Enfant, and, though that plan has not always been followed, it has served as a pattern according to which the city has been developed. Recently L'Enfant's plans have been revived by the late Daniel H. Burnham. And by dint of great effort on the part of people interested in art, Congress has been induced to make appropriations in carrying out this plan. But even here, where America has a notable opportunity to carry out the traditions we have inherited from the Old World, injury has been threatened.

In relation to this matter of artistic monuments and architectural and scenic development, the present Administration has made some good appointments, but it has not had a good record with reference to public buildings. Especially has it offended in the erection of a heating and power plant at a point where it will disfigure the city's beauty. Protest has been made against this by all the leading art organizations and by a large number of the most enlightened citizens of the country. The National Institute of Architects made a great effort to prevent this injury being done to the city. In this effort it received the active co-operation of the American Federation of Arts, which is a federation of many art societies. In Congress this effort secured the support of a well-known Democratic Senator, Mr. Newlands, of Nevada.

Because, however, of the opposition of Secretary McAdoo, who received the support of the President, these efforts were nullified, and the power plant is in process of erection.

Among those who have tried to prevent this injury is Mr. Howard Russell Butler, who is the President of the National Academy Association, and is a member of several of the art societies that have co-operated in this common effort. Mr. Butler has written to Mr. Hughes concerning this matter, and has received a reply in which Mr. Hughes says:

> I am deeply interested in the development of Washington and in the protection of its scenic effects. I agree with you that the action of the Administration in placing the Government heating and power plant on the edge of the Washington Park development is an unpardonable offense. I am in deep sympathy with the efforts of your Association to preserve our capital from hostile enterprises of this description.

It is not surprising to find one candidate rather indifferent to this subject and the other candidate interested. Washington is a symbol of the Nation, and it is natural to find Mr. Hughes, who represents the party which, as a whole, has the keener sense of Nationalism, aware of the importance of the harm that is

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threatened to the Nation's capital. As compared with the great questions of National honor and National duty before the voters, this may seem a minor matter; but it has in its way the same significance.

THE WHITMAN-SEABURY CAMPAIGN

For the most part the Presidential campaign has overshadowed the campaigns in the various States for the Governorship. This is true even in New York, where that campaign has certain elements of special interest. For two years Governor Whitman's administration has been under fire, not merely from his partisan opponents, but also from many independents. There has been evidence to show extravagance in certain directions and not a little inefficiency. Mr. Thomas Mott Osborne's struggle for an opportunity to reform Sing Sing Prison has not been supported by Governor Whitman with the strength and vigor that many reformers believe it should have been. In particular, many Progressives have felt that the political influences working with Governor Whitman have not been wholesome.

Governor Whitman's opponent, Judge Seabury, on the other hand, has been in the past a candidate on the Progressive ticket, and has been regarded as a liberal man in politics. He has made much in his campaign of the failure of the Whitman Administration to secure economy in government, and he is regarded as a supporter of the Osborne idea in prison reform. Nevertheless, many independent voters, and probably a majority of Progressives, will support Governor Whitman. There are several reasons for this fact.

In the first place, the voters of New York have not forgotten the humiliating experiences through which the State passed under the Democratic administrations of Dix and Sulzer, and they did not have their confidence in the Democratic régime restored by the Democratic administration of Governor Glynn. In particular, the voters remember the almost irreparable injury that was done through these administrations to the efficiency and repute of the Public Service Commissions. They have not forgotten that Governor Whitman has rehabilitated those positions by fine appointments; that he did support Mr. Osborne in Sing Sing to the extent of dismissing from office Mr. Osborne's chief opponent, Prison Commissioner Riley; and they cannot altogether ignore the fact that, although the law for physical and military training in the schools was not a perfect piece of legislation, Governor Whitman by his share in the creation of a commission to administer that law has secured to the service of the State three men who have the confidence, not only of the people at large, but also of those who best know of their fitness. Judge Seabury's attacks on the military bills have almost partaken of the arguments of the extreme pacifist; and those citizens who realize that the privileges of citizenship are of no avail except as the citizens of the State meet their obligations not only as voters, but also as defenders of the community, are likely to choose the Republican record in the State as preferable to anything that the Democratic candidate has to offer.

THE IRISH PROBLEM

In the autumn session of the British Parliament the most picturesque event so far has been the introduction by Mr. John Redmond of a motion criticising the system of government in Ireland. The motion, which was ultimately defeated, read as follows:

> The system of government at present maintained in Ireland is inconsistent with the principles wherefor the Allies are fighting in Europe, and is, or has been, mainly responsible for the recent unhappy events, and for the present state of feeling in that country.

To this Mr. John Rawlinson, Unionist Member for the University of Cambridge, moved an amendment which was ultimately accepted. It read as follows:

> Having regard for the importance of the United Kingdom and Ireland combining with the rest of the Empire in presenting a united front to the enemy, it is not desirable at the present time to discuss controversial matters of domestic politics.

Speaking to his motion, Mr. Redmond declared that the situation in Ireland is full of menace and danger—of menace to the hopes and aspirations of Ireland and to a good understanding between Great Britain and Ireland, and of dangers to the highest interests of the Empire. The speaker protested that his object was to allay, not to inflame, feeling, and to show how it is possible to save the situation. From the very first, he affirmed, as reported, the efforts of the Nationalist leaders had been thwarted and snubbed. "Thirty thousand Nationalist volunteers had enlisted," he said, "and if it had

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not been for distrust of Ireland in the early stages of the war, the number of volunteers would have been trebled."

The Nationalist leader complained that the delay in putting the Home Rule Bill on the statute-book gave to the Government's opponents in Ireland an opportunity of saying that they were about to be cheated. When it was seen that Sir Edward Carson, the anti-Nationalist leader, had been included in the Cabinet, thousands of Irishmen were convinced that they had been betrayed. From that day recruiting for the army had diminished and recruiting of the Sinn Feiners had increased. It was a mad rebellion, and yet had the rising been dealt with in the spirit with which General Botha dealt with the South African rising, it would have meant the saving of the situation.

Mr. Redmond then asked what was the purpose of the Government in setting up a Unionist administration in Dublin (the new Chief Secretary for Ireland is a Unionist). He said he would do everything possible to maintain the Irish regiments at their full strength, but it was no use asking him to do the impossible. It was the Empire's duty to remove all that made for bad faith and bad management and settle Ireland on a basis of freedom and responsibility. Compulsion, he asserted, would only aggravate the difficulty, and he asked that the Irish recruits enlisted in the United Kingdom be sent to Irish regiments. But "so long as the present state of government exists in Ireland," continued Mr. Redmond, "so long will the present excited and irritated public feeling exist. So long as the Irish people see that England, while fighting for the rights of small nationalities in Europe, is maintaining by martial law the Unionist Government against the will of the people of Ireland, no real improvement can be hoped for."

MR. REDMOND'S SUGGESTIONS

What should the British Government do? Mr. Redmond suggested:

1. Let the Government withdraw martial law and put in command of the forces in Ireland a man who has not been connected with the unhappy transactions of the past.
2. Let the administration of the Defense of the Realm Act be as stringent as they like, but animated by the same spirit and carried into effect by the same machinery as in Great Britain.
3. Let the five hundred untried prisoners be released.
4. Let the penal servitude prisoners be treated as political prisoners.
5. Let the Government take courage in its own hands and trust the Irish people once and for all by putting the Home Rule Act into operation and resolutely and on its own responsibility face any problems which that might entail.

Mr. Redmond's words made due impression, for it was believed that he had done his best and was prepared to continue to do his best to win the war, no matter what the risks to his own popularity and influence in Ireland.

Replying, Henry Edward Duke, the new Chief Secretary, recognized Mr. Redmond's desire that Ireland should play a part worthy of the traditions of that country. But the real question was whether, when Great Britain was fighting, Ireland should stand aside. Mr. Duke declared that the five hundred men still interned for participation in the Irish uprising were ringleaders, and he asked: "Do the Nationalists desire five hundred trials for treason, with the consequences which would follow?" The time had not come, he continued, when many of the interned men could safely be allowed to return to the countryside, but men who offered security were being released. The Secretary said that he sympathized with the Nationalists' disappointment in the delay of the application of the Home Rule Act, but asserted that the real obstacle was the disagreement among Irishmen themselves. In regard to martial law, he added, the Government's paramount duty was to secure to every law-abiding subject of Ireland protection by every means at its command.

In his speech which followed Mr. Asquith, the Prime Minister, admitted the blunders of recruiting in the early stages, and said that Mr. Redmond's suggestion for filling up with Irishmen the wasted ranks of the Irish division would receive sympathetic attention. No man, he declared, had rendered more constant, loyal, or effective service in recruiting than had the Irish leader. The Premier repudiated, however, the allegation that Ireland was being run by a Unionist administration. He also declared that, while martial law, as commonly accepted, was not being applied to Ireland, in view of the possible recrudescence of recent events, it was not wise to dispense with existing safeguards.

Mr. Lloyd George, Secretary of War, also admitted that at the beginning of the war "some stupidities, which at times almost looked liked malignance, were perpetrated in

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Ireland and were beyond belief," and that "it is very difficult to recover a lost opportunity of that kind when National susceptibilities have been offended and original enthusiasm killed." Every effort, he continued, was being made to keep Irishmen in Irish regiments, and only in cases of military emergencies were Irishmen drafted into non-Irish regiments. The total number of recruits from Ireland since the beginning of the war, said the Secretary, was one hundred and five thousand, or two and a half per cent of the population, a very low percentage compared with what the remainder of the United Kingdom and the Dominions had done. Hence, looking at the urgency of the military problem, he hoped that the men of all parties would help Mr. Redmond to solve his difficulties and to create a better atmosphere in Ireland with regard to recruits. He desired to see "this gallant and warlike people brought back to their original temper at the outbreak of the war."

THE EPISCOPAL CHURCH AND SOCIAL QUESTIONS

In the national meetings of any Church people in general are not so much interested in the particular things which affect that Church as they are in the Church's attitude concerning certain great social questions. General interest is therefore awakened through the position taken by the Social Service Commission appointed by the Convention of the Episcopal Church now in session in St. Louis. In the words of Bishop Lines, of Newark, the Chairman of the Commission, the unfortunate impression has gone forth that the fortunes of the Church are bound to the so-called privileged people. On the contrary, he affirms, the Church is standing firm for the fraternity of rich and poor. Bishop Guerry, of South Carolina, admitted that to the great body of laboring men in this country the Church does represent privilege, that it is apparently allied with wealth, that it seems to them the enemy of progress, and that only through some such movement as "the social forum tent outside this building" can the Church ultimately win back the estranged and separated classes. Bishop Brewster, of Connecticut, another member, affirmed that this country must increasingly recognize the precedence in value of human life over property interests. "To save the social fabric, we must needs talk less about liberty and equality," he asserted, "and more about real fraternity. The way of democracy is beset in city, State, and Nation by grave problems and perils. True democracy is essential to the Catholic Church that is to be." Bishop Lawrence, of Massachusetts, declared:

> There is a suspicion on the part of some that the Church is composed of carefully housed people, who in social life wish to keep things as they are. There is a suspicion on the part of others that the Church is here to support its own dogmas and opinions without regard for truth. The men of to-day want and will have truth. . . . When a body of people, inspired with a fine idealism for Socialism, rises up, the Church, or Christian people, may not condemn them without a hearing. . . . Fair play is what people demand from the Church.

One very definite bit of attention to a present social question was noted in the resolution adopted favoring the creation of a National board of censors for motion pictures. The resolution asserted that, while admitting the beneficial effect of some pictures, an increasing number are being presented showing "distorted views of affection, suggestions of lust, and license and details which combine to develop schools of crime."

Another subject received treatment in the following resolution passed by the House of Deputies:

> *Whereas*, Our age is witnessing vast and universal readjustment with reference to the manufacture and sale of liquor, and it is generally recognized that the saloon has become more and more a menace to the best interests of our corporate and industrial life; therefore
>
> *Be it resolved*, The House of Bishops concurring, that this Church places itself on record as favoring such action in our legislative assemblies as will preserve the large interests of temperance, and will aid in the repression of the liquor traffic.

The principal accomplishment of the Convention with regard to affairs within the Episcopal Church has been, to use an Irishism, a lack of accomplishment. Following the action of the Convention in adopting a title-page for a new hymnal which reaffirms the Church's present name, the efforts to change the name of the Church have now been abandoned. For several years a change of name has been advocated by a faction in the Church on the ground that the word "Protestant" apparently allies it with those denominations having their origin in the German Reformation, while the Episcopal Church traces its direct line to the time of Christ. The name

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"American Episcopal Church" is the one favored by many who so contend.

The question as to the remarriage of divorced persons was decided for the next three years by the rejection of the proposal to change the Church's custom, which permits clergymen to remarry so-called innocent parties to a divorce, provided that satisfactory legal evidence is obtained. It is asserted, however, that this question, with the increasing weight of opinion against the remarriage of the divorced under any circumstances, will become the next Convention's paramount issue. Three years must elapse between Episcopal General Conventions. The next Convention will meet in 1919 at Detroit.

The growth of the Church during the last three years is indicated by the fact that baptisms have increased over those of the preceding triennium by some 12,000, and confirmations by about 14,000. The Church numbers to-day approximately 1,080,000 communicants.

THE RUTGERS ANNIVERSARY

The one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the founding of Rutgers College was the occasion of appropriate celebration at New Brunswick, October 12–15. On the first day an educational conference was held, when addresses were made by Dr. P. P. Claxton, United States Commissioner of Education, and other distinguished men. On the second day the commemoration exercises were held in the old Dutch Reformed Church. Delegates from nearly one hundred and fifty colleges and universities and societies were present.

The historical address was given by President Demarest, whose tenth anniversary as President coincides with the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the College. Governor Fielder, of New Jersey, presided and made an address. That evening and the next day addresses were made by several college presidents. On Saturday morning the recognition of delegates and the conferring of honorary degrees took place in the College chapel. Fifteen honorary degrees were conferred, most of them related in some way to the historical elements in the life of the old College. The degree of LL.D. was conferred on President Hopkins, of Dartmouth; Dean Gildersleeve, of Barnard; Robert E. Speer; Chancellor Walker, of New Jersey; Joseph H. Choate; and Chevalier W. L. F. C. van Rappard, the Dutch Minister to the United States. This was also alumni day, and nearly one thousand alumni gathered to attend the football game in the afternoon and the dinner at night.

On Sunday morning the anniversary sermon was preached by the Rev. Dr. Andrew V. V. Raymond, lately President of Union College; and in the afternoon a thanksgiving musical service rendered by a chorus from the College and the city closed the celebration exercises.

An event which proved of great interest in a programme noteworthy from beginning to end was the pageant of Friday afternoon at the College Farm. It was conceived and prepared by Professor Clarence Ward, Chairman of the Celebration Committee, and was participated in by about five hundred people from the College and the city. A notable number of descendants of early trustees, professors, and graduates took part. The scenes (one of which is pictured on another page) were presented in a natural theater with a beautiful background of water, hill, and foliage. They included a prologue representing early and mediæval learning, and an epilogue presenting our ten colleges of Colonial foundation. The scenes representing the life of the College itself included the coming of the Dutch settlers to New Brunswick, the appearance of the petitioners for a college charter before Governor Franklin and his Council, the reading of the Declaration of Independence before citizens and students, the laying of the corner-stone of the present oldest college building, a ball at the historic house "Buccleuch," about 1845, and the raising of the flag at the College at the start of the Civil War.

ACADEMIC HONORS FOR A WIZARD

One of the most interesting and novel academic events of recent years was the conferring of the degree of Doctor of Laws upon the eminent inventor Thomas A. Edison by the University of the State of New York, at twenty minutes past ten in the evening of October 20. Mr. Edison was not present in person at Albany, and yet he received the degree himself personally at Orange, New Jersey, at the moment it was conferred. This, which not many years ago would have been regarded as a bit of magic, was made possible by means

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of the telephone, which Mr. Edison himself had helped to perfect.

The University of the State of New York, which is an examining body and which stands at the head of the public educational forces of the State, has conferred this degree on only two others.

The Convocation, as the gathering of the Regents of the University is called, was a profitable one this year. Notable addresses were made. There was a discussion of military training, of the junior high school, and of our daily speech, written, spoken, and pictured. The whole affair, however, had its culmination in the use of the spoken word at a distance, and its crowning episode was in the conferring of the degree on Mr. Edison. Here follows the brief speech which President Finley made on this occasion:

On behalf of the University of the State of New York, which is itself endowed with power by the State to express its educational purposes within its own boundaries, I, sitting in a hall nearly two hundred miles from you, a hall lighted by the glowing filaments which you invented, employ an instrument which you had a part in perfecting to express to you the congratulations and gratitude of this State for what you have done in making it possible to remember, to reproduce, and to transmit the spoken word, not only between neighbors, but between peoples separated by mountains or seas, to turn darkness into light, and to make vibrations reproduce their moving images in places as far from each other as the antipodes.

On behalf of the University representing this State I have the honor to notify you that the Regents have unanimously voted to bestow upon you its highest degree, a degree conferred by universities since mediæval times, a degree which the greatest universities of to-day have desired to bestow upon you, a degree of this University which was conferred upon Joseph Henry, but is held by only one living man, Elihu Root, a degree which, for the first time in the history of universities, is conferred by means of that tele-victorian instrument whose world-wide use you have yourself made possible, the degree of Doctor of Laws, conferred upon you not *in absentia*, but merely *in loco remoto*.

By virtue of the authority of the State and of the vote of the Regents of the University of the State of New York, I have the honor to confer upon you the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws.

The next day, without premeditation, President Finley saw Mr. Edison at the Electrical Exposition, at which the thirty-fifth anniversary of Mr. Edison's invention of the incandescent lamp was celebrated. There, in the midst of the whirring of the electrical forces and in the presence of thousands of persons, chiefly boys, President Finley put about Mr. Edison's shoulders the hood which symbolizes the honor which the University wished him to bear.

A HUMANE AND SANE PRISON MANAGEMENT

"Safe and sane methods of control of prisons, demonstrating that the object of prison management is to citizenize the prison inmate and to restore him to society cured," was the keynote of the annual Congress in October of the American Prison Association at Buffalo, New York. "It is the practical as contrasted with the sentimental cure that is sought," continued the chief resolution of the Congress.

Throughout the week of meetings attended by many hundred officials of prisons and reformatories there was opposition to the so-called "extreme" in present-day prison reform. Governor Whitman stated his conviction that "in swinging away from the brutal it is not necessary to swing into the maudlin. An extreme of punishment is no less dangerous than an extreme of mollycoddling. It is possible to think of the rights of the prisoner without forgetting the rights of society." The resolution we have quoted and Governor Whitman's remark might cause serious concern to earnest adherents of the new penology but for the fact that those who indorsed the above statements were in the main prison wardens, reformatory superintendents, and other officials, themselves of modern training and large-hearted sympathy, whose daily humane and broad-minded practice in the "citizenizing" of their own charges will allay undue worry. Indeed, so firmly intrenched to-day is the belief among prison administrators in the essential feasibility and value of honor systems, outdoor employment of prisoners, road work, and individualization of treatment that such methods are already regarded as axiomatic, as applied within reasonably conservative limits.

The American Prison Association has already passed along to an even more modern problem, that of the psychological and psychiatrical study of inmates, to the end that a physical, mental, and industrial "square deal" may be forthcoming to every inmate, and that the jumbling together of all types and capacities of prisoners within the same institution may give way to a new day in the

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distribution and the training of prisoners for their day of rehabilitation. In short, the day of the participation of the scientist in prison management is rapidly approaching.

Significant also, at Buffalo, was the frequent announcement of vacancies in wardenships and superintendencies of important institutions, and of the search being made for modern and efficient executives regardless of political affiliations. It is probable that there has never been a time when such vacancies were so hard to fill, for the traditional "party candidates" for warden or superintendent receive scant hearing.

Nor will the problem of a twentieth-century type of prison architecture be downed. The progress of the campaign against the cage system of prison construction was indicated at Buffalo. No large new institution under construction was announced as adhering to the interior cell block, while a number of institutions now under construction or renovation are being built with dormitories or single rooms or a combination of both.

All in all, the Buffalo Prison Congress marked fine progress, and seemingly there need be little fear that an evident unwillingness to indorse extremes in the treatment of prisoners means any lack of sympathy with the general forward sweep of humanity and brotherhood within the prison walls.

CHRISTIAN SCIENCE HEALERS MAY PRACTICE HEALING

Some people have apparently supposed that the Court of Appeals of the State of New York has decided that the Legislature has no power to make it a crime to treat disease by prayer. This is not so. This opinion, it is true, is expressed by the Chief Justice in a memorandum; but there is nothing in the opinion of the Court to indicate that the Court agrees with him in that statement. The decision of the Court upon the question whether in the State of New York the Christian Scientist practitioner has a legal right to treat disease by prayer is based wholly upon its construction of the statutes of the State on this subject.

New York law prohibits the practice of medicine except by persons duly licensed, and in its definition of the practice of medicine includes offering or undertaking by any means to "diagnose, treat, operate, or prescribe for any human disease, pain, injury, deformity, or physical condition." But it also provides that "this article shall not be construed to affect . . . the practice of the religious tenets of any church." A Mr. Cole is a Christian Scientist practitioner; he was never licensed, but had an office where he treated patients, for which he charged two dollars for the first treatment and one dollar for subsequent treatments. His treatment consisted simply in religious conversation and silent prayer. He explained to the visitor on whose complaint he was indicted that Christian Science did not believe in medical treatment, that he had no more power to cure her than any one else, that God was the only healer, and that if she would study Christian Science and comply with its directions and "purify her life and her thoughts and cleanse from her consciousness fear and inharmony and false thoughts," she could cure herself just as well as the Christian Science practitioner could cure her. The question before the Court was whether this was practicing medicine as defined by the statute, and, if so, whether the act was not exempt from prohibition of the statute because it was "the practice of the religious tenets of any church." The Court held that (1) Mr. Cole did treat his patient in the sense defined by the statute; but also that (2) this treatment was a part of "the religious tenets of a church," and therefore the defendant was not guilty of violating the statute. Judge Seabury, before whom the case was originally tried, charged the jury that it was no defense that the practitioner "did these acts in the practice of the religious tenets of the Christian Science Church." The Court of Appeals held that this was an error; that the Judge "should have left to the jury the question whether the defendant was in good faith practicing the tenets of such a church within the meaning of the statutory exception."

COMMENT ON THE DECISION

Two facts of general interest appear in this opinion of the Court of Appeals:

I. In the States of Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, North Carolina, North and South Dakota, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Wisconsin the Christian Science Church is in terms expressly excepted from the statutes prohibiting the unlicensed practice of medicine.

II. A semi-official definition of Christian Science was given by the practitioner in this case to his patient. He told her:

That Christian Science treatment was prayer to God. That Christian Science realized that

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God was omnipotent, or all-powerful; that he was omniscient, or all-knowing; that he was omnipresent, or ever present; and that because God was omnipotent, and omniscient, and omnipresent, and God was good, that it must follow that evil, disease, inharmony, sin, and discord were no part of his being and had no real existence, and that man was the image and likeness of God, and was entitled to dominion, and that his birthright was dominion, and that he had the right to affirm and secure immunity from discord of whatever name and nature, and that disease was like a shadow that flees before the light.

This decision of the Court of Appeals and the statutes referred to in other States indicate that the public opinion of the Nation favors allowing those who do not believe in the practice of medicine to take treatment from Christian Science healers who have no knowledge of medicine and do not believe in it. Even if Christian Science be an illusion, the State will not interfere to prevent the individual from indulging in this illusion whatever real or imaginary peril that indulgence may involve to himself. The decision does not indicate that the American people believe that the State may not interfere in case of contagious disease to take the patient away from treatment by any unlicensed physician, or, for that matter, from treatment by a licensed physician whenever the health authorities of the State think isolation or hospital treatment is necessary, not merely for the protection of the individual but for the protection of society; nor under what circumstances and to what extent the State ought to interfere to protect the children of the State as its wards against the failure of parents to provide protection for their children from neglect or from ignorant and unscientific treatment of disease.

BOYS' CLUBS

One of the facts confronting us in this twentieth century is the prominence of the boy. He used to be accepted as a necessary evil. It was supposed that one might endure him but not enjoy him. Good deacons and elders were wont to view often with alarm and always with disapproval the boy's too vigorous activity.

What a change nowadays! Those activities are being specially cultivated and directed by men whose lives are devoted to the work. Never has there been such an effort as at present on the part of boy experts to solve the boy problem. It is well that it should be so, for our Nation's future depends on its boyhood's training.

It is said that there are about eight million boys in the United States to-day between the ages of ten and eighteen. Of the eight million probably not more than five million get a fair chance to develop into all-round men. Herein lies the real boy problem. If every boy were destined to become a model citizen, there would be no juvenile courts. But every boy is not so destined.

A main difficulty is that too many lads are on the streets and in bad environment at night. In the daytime most boys have to go straight to school or straight to work. In the daytime they are occupied. It is the spare time, and particularly the spare time at night, which needs providing for. How can youngsters be kept off the street?

The best proved means is the organization known as the Boys' Club. It does not reach out for one-third of all the boys. They are the sons of comparatively well-to-do parents, and have the advantages of higher education and good environment. It reaches out for the two-thirds who have but few privileges.

There are no exorbitant membership fees to pay; the cost is rarely over ten cents a month, and more often it is five. But there are bright lights and hearty fellowship right off, not on, the street; there are pool and billiards, gymnasium and game rooms, shower baths and a library, to say nothing of classes and little clubs inside the big club.

So important have boys' clubs shown themselves to be in the eighty cities where they exist to-day that a National organization, the Boys' Club Federation, has come into existence. Its office is at 1 Madison Avenue, New York City. It acts as a clearing-house of information concerning boyhood. In particular, it is making a survey of the country to discover those cities and parts of cities where boys' clubs are most needed and where it is possible to establish a boys' club. It furnishes men to conduct financial campaigns and it holds an annual conference.

The Outlook chronicles this endeavor with satisfaction. There ought to be a boys' club in every city and town in the United States of five thousand inhabitants.

THE ORPHANS OF ITALIAN SOLDIERS

When we find that the cities of Rome, Milan, Genoa, Verona, Vicenza, Mantua, Rovigo, Bologna, Catania, and Palermo are engaged in a common work, it would seem

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as if that work must be worth while. And it is. It is a work on behalf of the farm boy who, because his father has been killed in the war, has become an orphan.

First of all, the work benefits the boy. It consists in the establishment of farm colonies where boys may have that kind of instruction which ought to make them skilled agricultural laborers, enabling them later to manage small rural holdings as tenants or as possible proprietors. They learn how to cultivate the various crops, how to raise cattle, how to breed silkworms, and how to use agricultural implements and machinery.

Each colony is located amid surroundings closely similar to those in which the majority of applicants have spent the first years of their lives. Land is furnished where the boys can do field work just as if they were still living on their fathers' little farms.

Applicants are received from seven to fifteen years of age, and they may remain in the colony until the age of twenty-one, always under the care of a manager, who has the help of skilled teachers of agriculture. Each child's annual cost of maintenance is in the neighborhood of one hundred dollars.

Where does the money come from? In the first place, it comes from a central body called the Opera Nazionale per gli Orfani dei Contadini morti in Guerra (the National Society for the Orphans of Peasants killed in War), with its headquarters at Rome. This Opera Nazionale also purchases land for the purpose of forming small holdings and of selling them at low prices to orphans brought up in its agricultural colonies. Funds are also furnished by provincial and municipal bodies, as indicated above, which pay annually for the maintenance of a certain number of children, thus becoming entitled to a proportionate share in the management of the colony, and to the right of naming a corresponding number of children for admittance.

The benefit of this organization will not be only to the child; it will accrue to the state. Agriculturally and economically such a work must of course be of advantage to all Italy because it is under the direction of experts.

YELLOW FEVER

For centuries tropical America has been subject to epidemics of yellow fever. Populations were decimated there, industry and trade paralyzed, and the people held in a state of perpetual dread.

Only the fringe of all this reached our country. But the fringe was bad enough. While outbreaks occurred as far north as Boston, the appalling devastation due to the disease was of course most evident in the South; the lower Mississippi Valley epidemic of 1878, for instance, caused no less than thirteen thousand deaths, and an economic loss of over a hundred million dollars.

If, so far as the United States is concerned, the eradication of yellow fever from Havana has now removed the chief source of danger, certain countries of the mainland still constitute a source of anxiety—the Caribbean region, the Brazilian coast, the Amazon Valley, and the west South American coast from Mollendo, Peru, to Mazatlan, Mexico. At all seasons these regions are subject to invasion.

Nor is this all. A memorandum has appeared from the Yellow Fever Commission appointed by the Rockefeller Foundation calling attention to the new and close relations with these regions brought about by the opening of the Panama Canal. Before that opening there had been little or no exchange between these pest-holes of infection or from them to us. But what was once relatively harmless has since the Canal's opening become perilous to the new highway of trade and travel.

The work done by Surgeon-General William C. Gorgas, U. S. A., at Havana and Panama, and by the Brazilian (the head of the Federal Department of Health) Dr. Oswaldo Cruz at Rio de Janeiro, has shown that the disease can be exterminated in certain centers where its existence is due to some peculiarity of locality, and has at least given ground for the belief that it is possible completely to eradicate it everywhere.

Acting on this belief, and conscious of the peril attendant on operating the Panama Canal, the International Health Board of the Rockefeller Foundation decided months ago on an investigation. It appointed a Yellow Fever Commission, with General Gorgas as Chairman, and the Commission sailed on its mission last June. It is ascertaining what measures may be necessary to eradicate the infection in those communities on which the responsibilities for the presence and spread of the infection of yellow fever are found to rest. The secretary of the Commission informs The Outlook that the investigation will be completed in about three months. The consequent report will be awaited with interest.

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A LAST MESSAGE

Next week the American people answer a question second in importance only to that which their forebears answered in 1860 by the election of Abraham Lincoln. This is our last word to them on the issues involved.

There come in the life of nations, as in the lives of individuals, occasions when character is tested by some primary question of duty. In such crises party ties, acquired prejudices, selfish interests, considerations of personal safety, become impertinences. Such, in the estimation of The Outlook, is the present crisis.

The Declaration of Independence affirms that the Creator has endowed all men with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that to secure these rights governments are instituted among men. Is this true? Do governments exist for this purpose? Are they just only as they fulfill this purpose? And, if this fundamental principle is true, what does it demand of the American people to-day?

Some thousands of Americans have gone to Mexico to make it their home. It is not charged against them that they have violated Mexican laws, resisted Mexican processes of law, or conspired against such government as Mexico possesses. Is it the duty of the American Government to protect their unalienable rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness?

Thousands of Americans travel every year upon the ocean. Is it the duty of the American Government to protect their unalienable rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness upon the ocean, the world's highway?

Many thousands of immigrants have come to this country from the Old World that they might here find their rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness secure. Have they any interest in the life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness of their fathers and brothers, their mothers and sisters and friends, whom they have left in the Old World, where now those rights are ruthlessly invaded by war?

Not all the nations are engaged in this war. Not all the citizens of the nations engaged are taking part in the war. Have the citizens of neutral nations, have the non-combatants in the warring nations, any rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness?

The founders of this Nation dedicated their lives, their fortunes, and their sacred honor in support of the declaration that life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness are unalienable rights. Is there any reason why the citizens of this Nation should have and should express any interest in or sympathy with those members of other neutral nations and those non-combatants in all nations whose unalienable rights are violated by open, flagrant, and continuous disregard of international law?

America's liberty is an inheritance from the past—pre-eminently from England and France. Now that the rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness of these nations, our spiritual ancestors, are assailed, is there any reason why we, their descendants, should express to them our interest in their struggle and our hopes for their success?

In this world war the three great democracies of Europe—England, France, and Italy—are fighting in order that government of the people, by the people, and for the people shall not perish from the earth. Is there any reason why we should sincerely wish and fervently pray that they may secure for their countries those liberties which we fondly hope we have secured for ourselves?

To these questions President Wilson and his Administration have replied, emphatically, "No." Mr. Wilson has refused to give protection to American citizens in Mexico, and officially advised them to flee, leaving their homes to be ravaged, their property destroyed, and their loyal employees massacred. He has furnished no protection to travelers on the ocean. He has advised all American citizens, whether foreign-born or native-born, to be neutral in sympathy as well as in act, and thus has counseled the foreign-born to be indifferent to the liberties and the lives of the families and friends whom they have left in the Old World. He has refused to make any protest against the flagrant breach of treaty, to which America was a party, any protest against the flagrant violation of international law by war waged against non-combatants, and declined or failed to take any action in response to the delegation of Belgians who presented a report of these unwarlike barbarities. And he has declared once and again that America has no concern with the causes and objects of this war, no interest to ascertain what they are. When, a few days ago, an American naval vessel stood by while American men and women were lowered into small boats just beyond the neutral waters of

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America, and the passenger ship on which they had been traveling was sent to the bottom by a German submarine, this American naval vessel furnished an object-lesson of the spirit which the present Administration desires to see exemplified by the American people. Alike by official declarations and by public acts it frankly avows the desire that we should maintain an attitude of indifference, careful only to protect our own present safety and seek out of a world calamity some increase of our future commercial prosperity.

We wish to see America inspired by a very different spirit and resolved upon a very different policy. We believe in the America which under Monroe notified the Holy Alliance of Europe that any attempt to interfere with free institutions on the Western Continent would be regarded as an unfriendly act. We believe in the America which in 1812 attacked England, mistress of the seas, for the purpose of winning the right of Americans to travel unhindered and unafraid upon the world's highway. We believe in the America which, as soon as that war was ended, fought the Algerian pirates and forever took the Mediterranean out of the war zone. We believe in the America which highly resolved that popular government should not perish from the earth and counted no sacrifice too great to secure for all peoples under its flag the unalienable rights affirmed in the Declaration of Independence. We believe in the America which could not endure to see a sixteenth-century despotism oppressing a nineteenth-century people and fought the Spanish War to set its neighbors free. We believe in an America strong enough, wise enough, and chivalric enough to preserve for the Philippine people their unalienable rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness until they have become strong enough, wise enough, and chivalric enough to protect those rights themselves. We believe that the greatest dangers to this country have come from its sometimes lapsing into a timid, vacillating, and selfish policy, as it did under Buchanan, and that its greatest safety has come from its adoption of a courageous, consistent, and heroic policy, as it did under Washington, Monroe, and Lincoln.

Six months ago Mr. Wilson, speaking in Washington at the Convention of the League to Enforce Peace, said of the European war:

With its causes and its objects we are not concerned. The obscure fountains from which its stupendous flood has burst forth we are not interested to search for or explore.

We advise those who agree with this sentiment and all that it involves to vote for Mr. Wilson.

In its issue for October 6, 1915, The Outlook said:

The Presidential issue for 1916 is very simple. It is not the tariff. It is not finance. It is not the relation of capital to labor. It is not the regulation of the trusts. It is the question of National defense. Shall our citizens be protected abroad and our country protected at home?

We advise those to vote for Mr. Hughes who agree with The Outlook that it is the duty of America to protect our citizens abroad from foreign aggression and our citizens at home from domestic oppression, and who sympathize with all peoples in all lands who are struggling to maintain for themselves and their children the fundamental rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, for which governments are instituted among men.

ON RAISING A CONGRESSMAN

A subscriber writes to The Outlook asking for a short article on "Preparatory Training for Being a Congressman." Congressmen, like poets, should be born, not made. Yet we suppose that the work of nature can within certain limits be improved upon and developed by the hand of man. It is too much to expect that nature alone can create a Congressman in the full flower of his spiritual, intellectual, and sartorial perfection.

Seriously, however, the problem of educating a Congressman provides food for interesting speculation. Granted the necessary foundation of character and intelligence, what would we recommend as suitable training for the difficult work of making laws for the American Nation?

In the first place, we should wish to make very sure that our Congressman-select recognized the fact that he would be called upon to legislate for a nation rather than for his home town. To this end, we might prescribe for him a trip on a Gloucester fishing schooner, and another down the Mississippi from St. Louis to the sea. We might ask our cadet Congressman to study at first hand the harbor problems of New York, the labor

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problems of Wilkes-Barre and Leadville, and the racial problems of the Pacific Coast and the Mexican border. We should wish him to know something more of farming than how to shake a farmer's hand; something more of mechanics than how to crank an automobile; something more of social welfare work than the habit of dropping money in a contribution plate.

He should know that our country has a past as well as a future; he should know that behind that past lie generations and centuries of human endeavor and human development. Since our laws and our Government are so closely bound to the laws and the Government of England, he ought to have in his mind as well as in his library at least so much of the history of that country as is contained in Green's "Short History of the English People." He ought to know enough of eighteenth-century England to understand that Burke's "Speech on Conciliation" is practical political history as well as material for schoolboy orations and grammatical exercises. He ought to know enough of nineteenth-century England to understand the relations between England and America during our Civil War. He ought to have a clear conception of the contributions which France has made to the development of democracy, and something of the great historical forces which have led to the unification of Italy and of Germany, the eastward sweep of Russia, and the transformation of Japan. For all of this our Congressman of course must turn to such books, for example, as Brownell's "French Traits," Thayer's "Life of Cavour," the "Reminiscences" of Carl Schurz, Bismarck's speeches and letters, Wallace's "Russia," and Nitobe's "Intercourse between the United States and Japan."

And to books he must turn to a large extent for the appreciation and understanding of his own country, for no man can exhaustively investigate at first hand all the corners of our continental domain.

The books which he should possess (mentally and physically) are largely biographical and historical, and of these two classes perhaps the biographical is the more important.

Of course our student Congressman would find instructive and valuable reading in John Fiske and Francis Parkman and James Ford Rhodes. He should at least know such representative volumes of these three writers as "New France and New England," "The Oregon Trail," and "Essays on the Civil War." Of the books which deal with the philosophy of American history, democracy, and political economy, he should certainly possess "The American Commonwealth," by James Bryce. He should read "Democracy in America," by de Tocqueville; Mumford's "The Nation;" and H. E. von Holst's "Constitutional History of the United States." He might add, for further reading, James Russell Lowell's "Democracy," Lieber's "Civil Liberty and Self-Government," A. Lawrence Lowell's "Essays on Government," Woodrow Wilson's "The State," J. W. Jenks's "The Immigration Problem," Theodore Roosevelt's "Winning of the West," and Lecky's "Democracy and Liberty."

The list of books which might be given is a long one. But perhaps we ought to mention in these suggestions for study Horace L. Deming's "The Government of American Cities" or Munro's "Principles and Methods of Municipal Administration;" "Woman's Work and Wages," by Cadbury, Matheson, and Shann; "The Labor Movement in America," by Richard T. Ely; F. W. Taylor's "The Principles of Scientific Management;" Webb's "Industrial Democracy;" and "Labor Legislation," by Commons and Andrews. We should also add, perhaps, such diverse publications as "The Administration of Dependencies," by Alpheus H. Snow; Abraham Flexner's "Prostitution in Europe;" Raymond Fosdick's "The European Police System;" and Oppenheim's "International Law."

In the field of biography our student certainly should make himself familiar with the volumes of "The American Statesmen" series. There is also a rich field of study in the memoirs and biographies of the statesmen and soldiers of the Civil War, chief of which is, of course, "The Life of Abraham Lincoln," by Nicolay and Hay. Dealing with an earlier period, he ought also to know the state papers and letters of Washington, and Owen Wister's "Seven Ages of Washington." He ought also to know Sumner's or Oliver's "Life of Alexander Hamilton," and for a general survey of American politics Edward Stanwood's "History of Presidential Elections." To come to more recent times, such books as the "Life and Letters of John Hay," by W. R. Thayer, and Mr. Roosevelt's "Autobiography" (especially the chapter relating to his first entry into political life) should have a share in our candidate's political education.

Fully as important as anything which we

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have mentioned is the attainment of an understanding and appreciation of General Emory Upton's "Military Policy of the United States" and Mr. Huidekoper's "The Military Unpreparedness of the United States."

Having exhausted the possibilities of such a programme of study as we have here outlined, we should be almost willing to trust our candidate within the halls of Congress.

But we should have to warn our candidate that, as Congress is now organized, he might at first attain to no greater dignity than a minority membership upon the Committee of Acoustics and Ventilation.

A SUGGESTION FROM INDIA

This is the noisiest age that men have lived through. There are more people in the world; they travel more than ever before, they are more gregarious, and they use far more machinery. The little cities of antiquity were not silent cities; they were neighborhoods rather than great communities, and they were vocal with the sounds of human work and companionship. But electric cars did not rush through the narrow streets, and the strident horn of the automobile was not heard. More men are in arms to-day than ever before. Battles that were once ended at nightfall now run into months; armies are now counted by millions, cannon by thousands; artillery duels are continuous, and the roar of great guns is deafening over vast territories and for months together.

The noise out of doors is supplemented by the noise within doors. There are, for many people, no settled principles, no fundamental convictions; every statement is challenged, every belief denied, every custom questioned. Everywhere men and women are talking at the top of their voices; no mysteries are inviolate; no experiences are too sacred to be reported; no details of crimes are so revolting that they are not spread out for the reading of children.

The passion for speech has not only robbed silence of things once committed to its keeping, but has made it almost obsolete. The world is filled with the uproar of fierce debate, recrimination, charge and countercharge; the newspapers tell the story of the day's doings in headlines, gigantic capitals advertise remedies for quieting the nerves, and scores of best-sellers among novels "start with a rush and end with a bang."

Wise men and women are finding out that emphasis is secured, not by force and exaggeration, but by moderation and quietness of statement. Here and there in the uproar a still, small voice arrests attention. In a revolutionary age there is always much and noisy talk; but has not the time come for lower tones, for a milder temper, for less bitterness of spirit, for the quietness which listens and tries to understand? When everybody shouts, there are few listeners.

In crowds there sometimes come sudden silences that are almost uncanny in their effect. Has not the time come for one of those moments of silence? There is too much hysteria in the air; feeling is mounting to a dangerous height; society is becoming ominously divided. Instead of standing off and shouting charges at one another, as some employers and some workers are doing, we ought to come quietly together and try to understand why and how we differ. Americans need an army of evangelists of the gospel of quietness. Describing the visit of a group of Hindus to this country, Professor William James wrote: "More than one of them has confided to me that the sight of our faces, contracted as they are with American over-intensity of expression, made a painful impression upon him. 'I do not see,' said one of them, 'how it is possible for you to live as you do, without a single minute in your day given to tranquillity and meditation. It is an invariable part of our Hindu life to retire for at least half an hour daily into silence, to relax our muscles, to govern our breathing, to meditate on eternal things. Every Hindu child is trained to this from a very early age.'"

We are getting many holidays; why not set aside half an hour every day for silence?

THE FIELD IS THE WORLD

A recent attempt of a church to carry its message outside of church attendance is furnished by the First Congregational Church of Ann Arbor, Michigan. It publishes, in connection with the Congregational Educational Society and the Michigan Congregational Conference, a pamphlet entitled "Congregationalism at the University of Michigan." Its title seems to us infelicitous. It contains, not an account of Congregationalism at the

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University of Michigan, but a series of articles, short, readable, we should think effective, addressed to freshmen; an article on Congregationalism by Dr. Gladden; and a directory of members and officers of the University affiliated with the Congregational Church. The method of publication naturally might be improved, for this is a first attempt. But the spirit which animates it is admirable, and it contains a suggestion which in different forms might be worked out in other than college communities.

There is nothing new in the publication by a church of a weekly or monthly paper. But these are generally adapted to, if not intended for, the Church and Sunday-school, not for the world outside. And they are generally too ecclesiastical, too professional, too much trade journals, to be of much value except as a means of communication between the pastor and his people.

But every attempt to carry the message of the church to people who never come to church is to be welcomed, encouraged, supported. There will be mistakes made, even blunders committed. The wise church will learn wisdom by its mistakes and blunders.

The real question for the churches is not how to get the people to the church, but how to get the church to the people.

Every great revival of religion has been accompanied, if not produced, by a movement to carry religious truth to men and women who could not be induced to come to the church. Christ preached in the synagogues, but he also preached in the outer court of the Temple, in private houses, and in the fields. The prow of a boat, a stone on the hillside, sufficed for a pulpit. Paul preached in the synagogues, but he also preached in private houses, in the public market-places, in a school-house, in a prison yard. The preaching friars who did so much in England for improving social conditions as well as inspiring spiritual life did not confine their preaching to the cathedrals. John Wesley preached in the churches when they would admit him, but his great congregations were those which he addressed outside of any church. No preachers in this country have reached such large congregations as those reached by Dwight L. Moody and "Billy" Sunday, and their congregations have largely been made up of non-churchgoers.

The church has a double function. It has to maintain, promote, and express the spiritual hopes, aspirations, resolves, of those who already attend its services. This it is doing fairly well. It has also to carry its message of spiritual life to those who never come to its services. This it does but feebly, and generally, we fear, not at all.

Dr. Parkhurst put the truth well in a sentence: The Church should be the minister's force, not his field.

The field is the world.

AMERICA'S PROSPERITY

BY HENRY VAN DYKE

They tell me thou art rich, my country: gold
In glittering flood has poured into thy chest;
Thy flocks and herds increase, thy barns are pressed
With harvest, and thy stores can hardly hold
Their merchandise; unending trains are rolled
Along thy network rails of East and West;
Thy factories and forges never rest;
Thou art enriched in all things bought and sold!

But dost *thou* prosper? Better news I crave.
O dearest country, is it well with thee
Indeed, and is thy soul in health?
A nobler people, hearts more wisely brave,
And thoughts that lift men up and make them free,—
These are prosperity and vital wealth!

The Hague, October 1, 1916.

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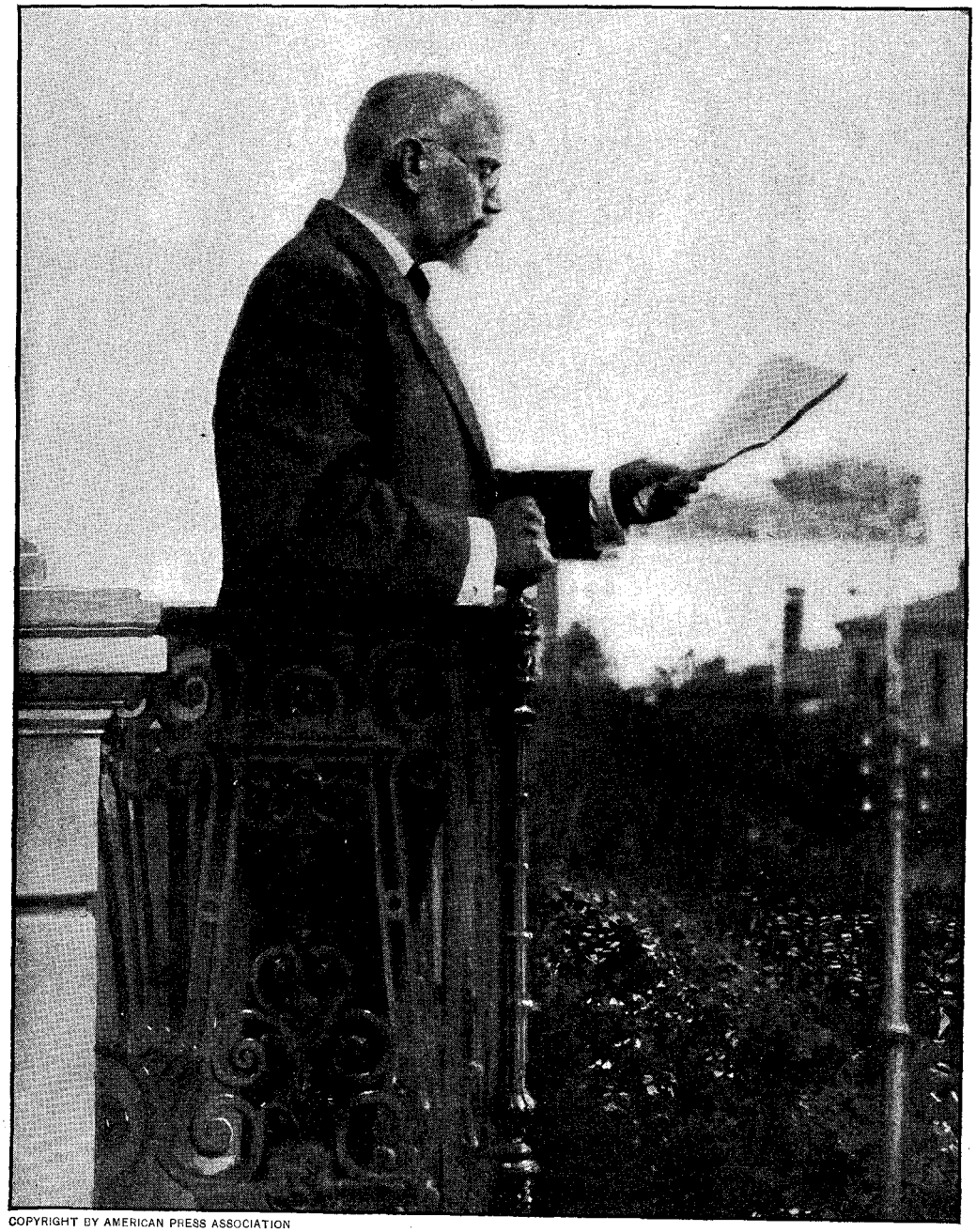
Current Events Pictorially Treated



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VENIZELOS, THE STRONG MAN OF GREECE, ADDRESSING A GREAT ASSEMBLAGE OF HIS FELLOW-COUNTRYMEN AT ATHENS

The orator has just read a letter of protest to the King from inhabitants of Greek territory invaded by the Bulgarian army

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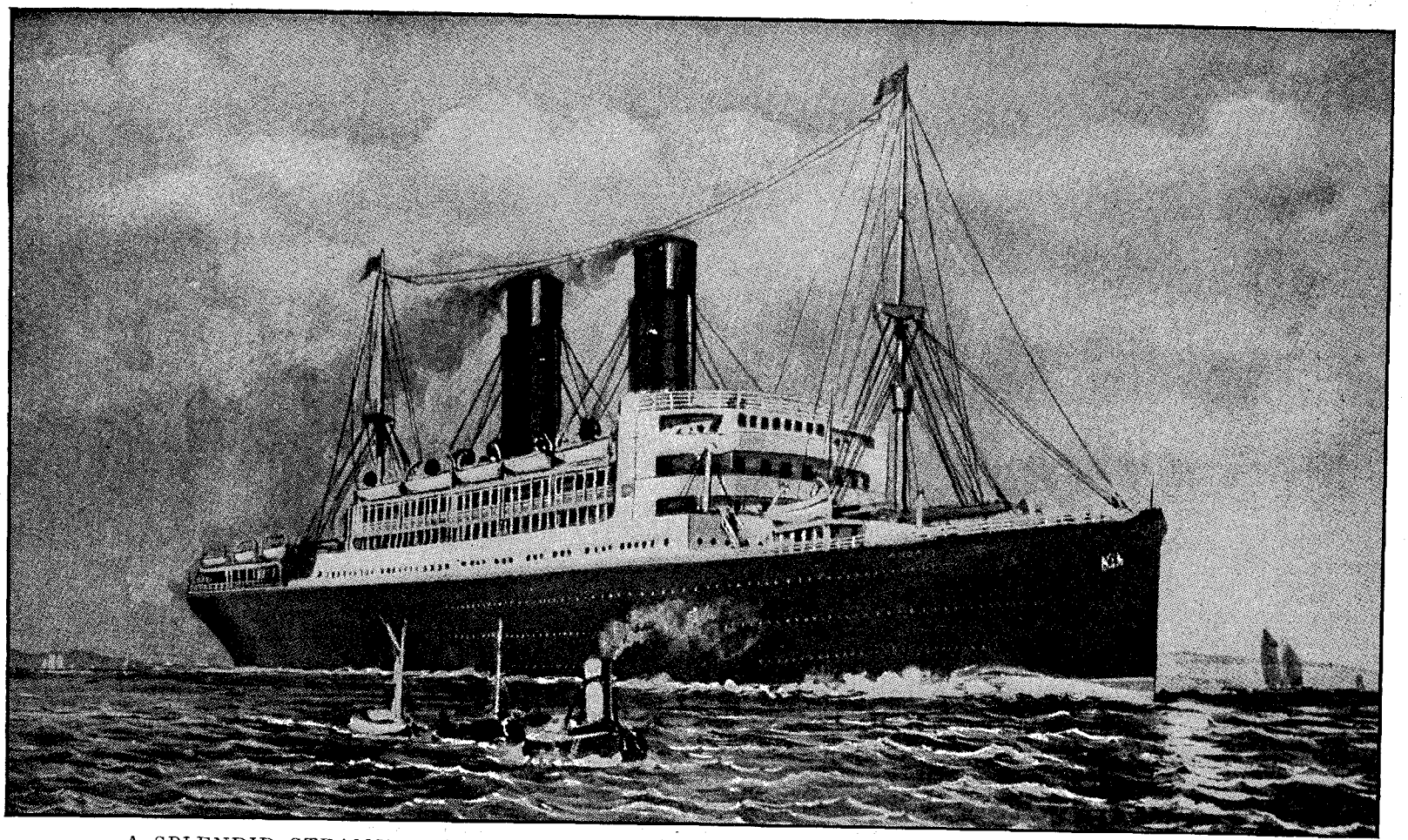

A SPLENDID STEAMSHIP SACRIFICED TO THE WAR-SPIRIT THAT IS DEVASTATING EUROPE

The picture shows the new steamship Alaunia, of the Cunard Line, which left New York October 7 with 243 passengers and a crew of 250. With her cargo, she was valued at $7,000,000. She struck a mine in the English Channel on October 19, after landing her passengers at Falmouth, and was sunk. Her captain and most of her crew were saved

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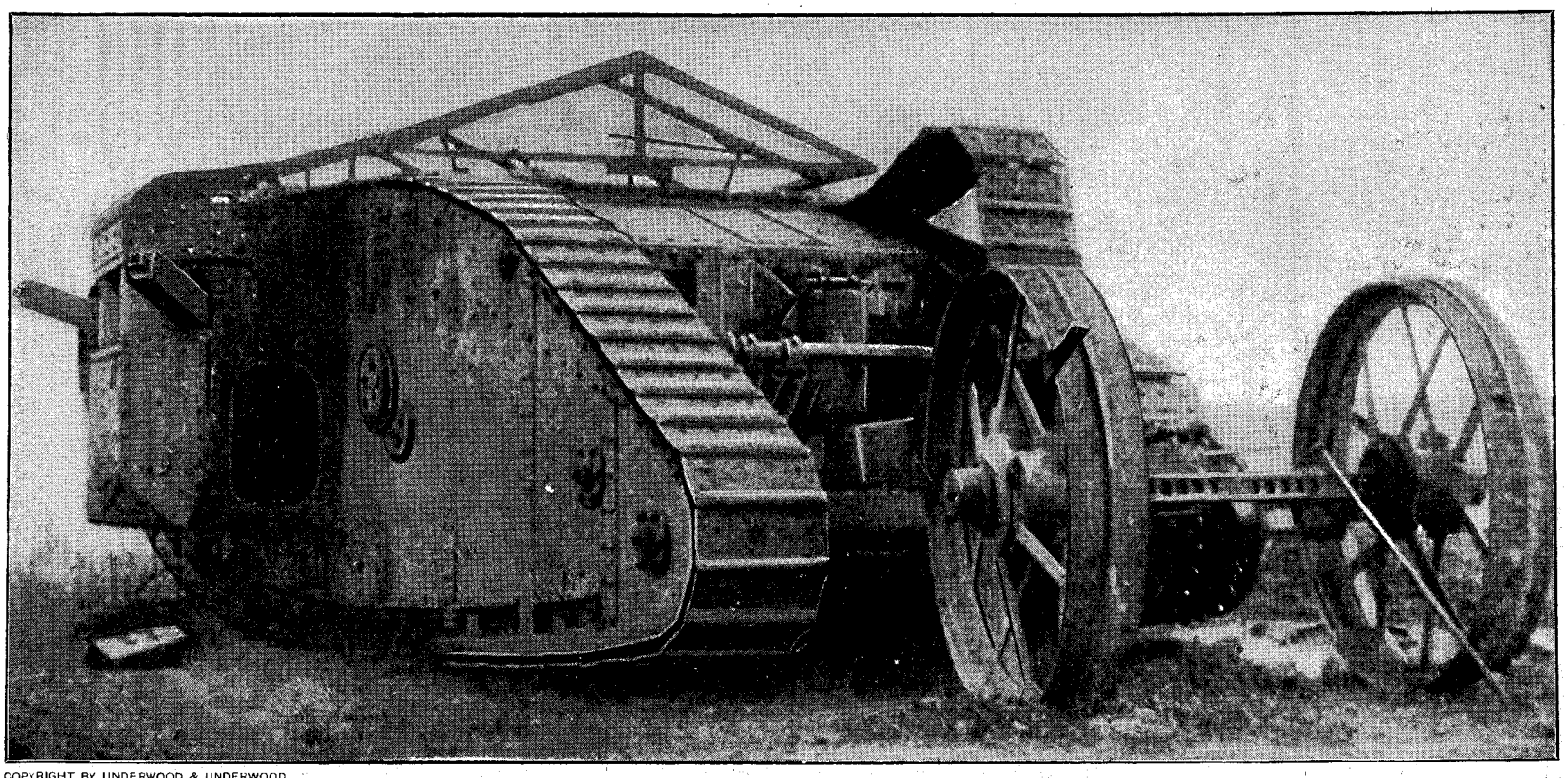

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THE ARMORED "TANK" USED BY THE BRITISH ON THE SOMME

Tnis photograph, which was, it is stated, taken recently on the battlefield of the Somme, presents an interesting view of the monster armored tractor which has created a sensation in military circles. The occupants of the "tank" are invisible; under the protection of steel armor they can send from each side of the car a stream of bullets along the trenches that they cross—that is, they can enfilade the trenches. Four weeks ago The Outlook printed a picture of a tractor of this so-called "caterpillar" type, but smaller. The revolving bands or belts serve as a movable pavement or endless track on which the wheels (in this case inclosed in armor) run. These bands enable the "tank" or "Willie" (as the soldiers at the front call it) to cross shell holes, ditches, wire entanglements, depressions in the ground, shallow streams, and even trenches. In a despatch from the front an Associated Press correspondent says that the use of these "tanks" has saved twenty thousand men. Tractors of this type, according to the "Scientific American," have been used in clearing the basin of the Ashokan Reservoir in New York and in reclaiming the Everglades, overriding masses of tangled branches and uprooting trees. Each belt can be operated separately, and thus the tractor can be turned within its own length. The accounts of what these "tanks" have accomplished at the front in Europe are not therefore inherently incredible.

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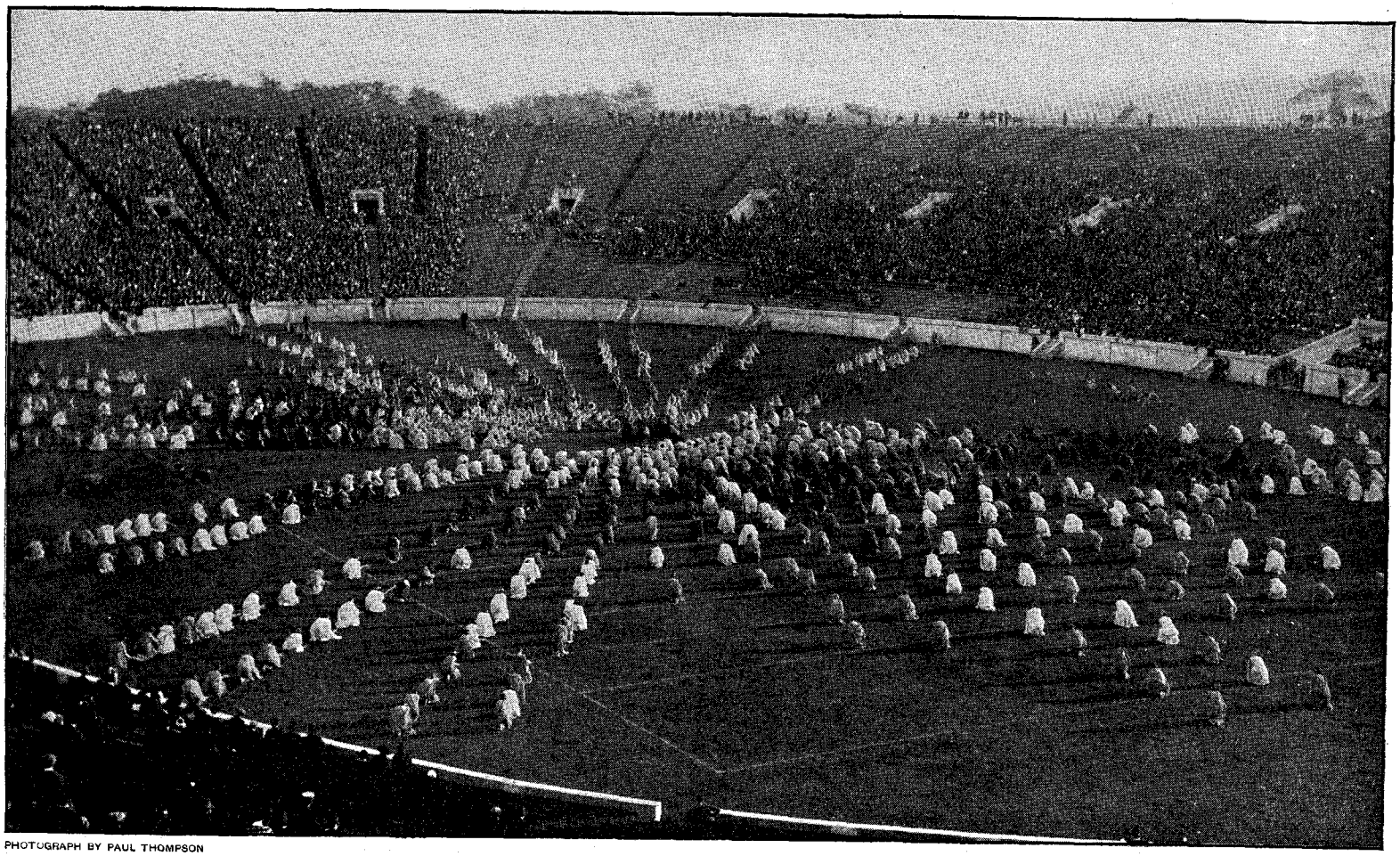

PHOTOGRAPH BY PAUL THOMPSON

THE PAGEANT AT YALE UNIVERSITY

The photograph shows the "Allegory of War and Peace." See editorial pages for a description of this great pageant, in which 7,000 performers are estimated to have taken part. It took place in New Haven on October 21

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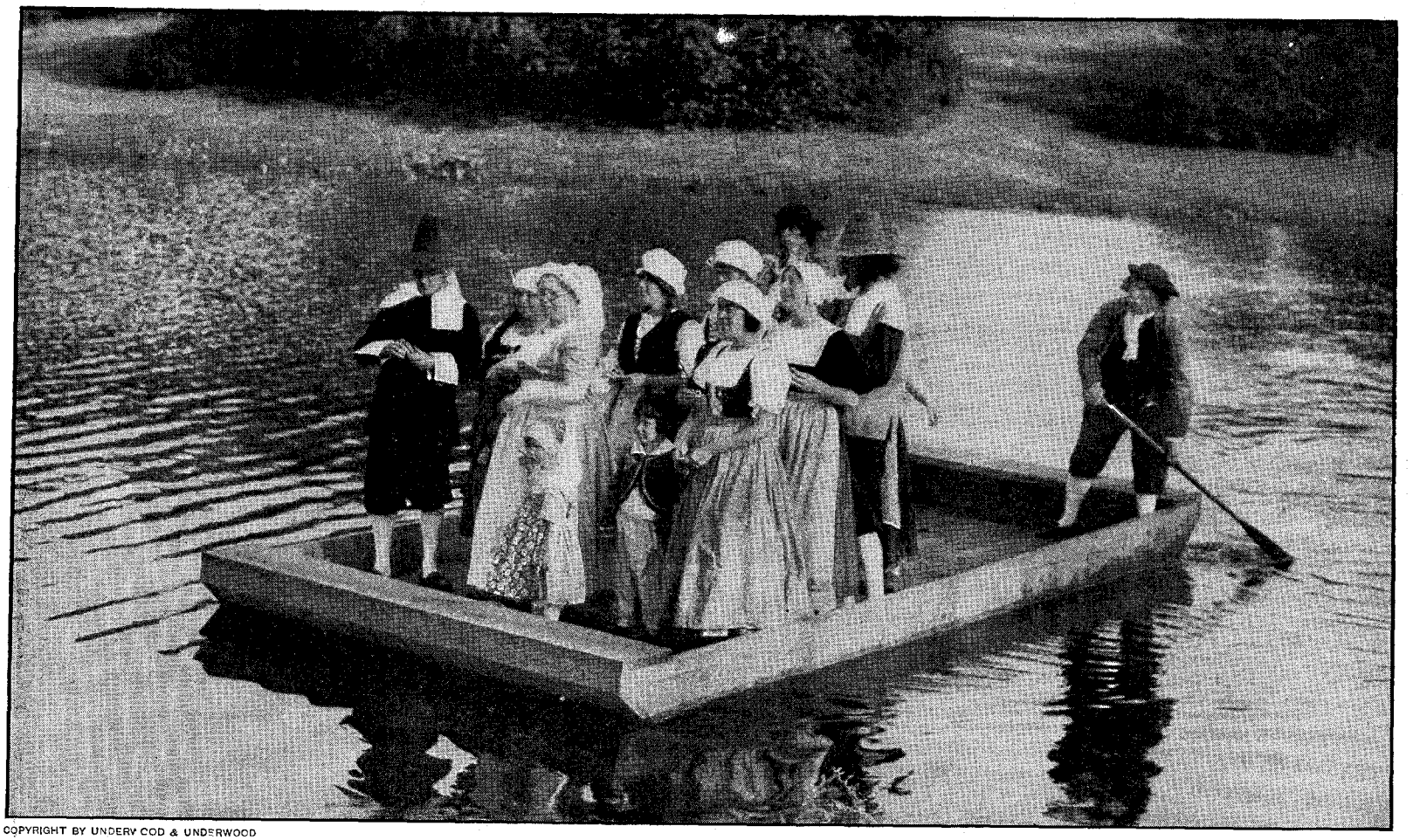

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CELEBRATION OF THE ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTIETH ANNIVERSARY OF THE FOUNDING OF RUTGERS COLLEGE

Situated in New Brunswick, New Jersey, Rutgers College was founded when that town was in its infancy, and was originally known as Queen's College. The picture shows part of the commemorative pageant, representing early settlers crossing the Raritan River. See editorial comment

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PHOTOGRAPH BY CENTRAL NEWS PHOTO SERVICE

THE STRIKE AT BAYONNE, NEW JERSEY, AT THE STANDARD OIL WORKS

The photograph shows a detachment of deputy sheriffs and police marching to the scene of the strike. They are well armed and they are prepared to defend the property under their care to the last extremity, meeting violence with violence. It is a reproach to our civilization that these armed conflicts between labor and capital are not prevented by means of a system of compulsory arbitration which should enforce substantial justice to both sides at the hands of the public

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A PICTURESQUE ELEMENT IN THE POLITICAL CAMPAIGN

In Kentucky, where the above photograph was made, large numbers of eager listeners went to hear Mr. Hughes, not by railway, carriage, or motor car, but on horseback, in the good old-fashioned way. The scene illustrated is at the town of Prestonburg

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PHOTOGRAPH FROM PRESS ILLUSTRATING SERVICE

A SPIRITED FRENCH POSTER RECENTLY DISPLAYED ON PARIS BILLBOARDS

As the above poster indicates, not all the French artists are at the front. It was designed by A. Faivre, who worthily sustains the reputation of French poster-makers for brilliancy of conception and dashing execution. This poster appeared at the time of the issuance of a call for the second war loan. "*On les aura*" may be translated, "We shall get them yet!"

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THE YALE PAGEANT

A COLLEGE AND CITY CELEBRATION

EDITORIAL CORRESPONDENCE

NEITHER Yale nor New Haven was founded two hundred years ago. The first has fifteen more than two hundred years to its credit; the second has seen two hundred and seventy-nine years pass since John Davenport and Theophilus Eaton landed at a point now far removed from the water's edge, and made friends with the Quinnipiac Indians, as was shown in the first scene of the Colonial Episode of the recent pageant at New Haven. Yet the celebration of which the pageant of October 21 was the chief event was truly a bicentennial. "In commemoration of the two hundredth anniversary of the coming of Yale College to New Haven," said the programme. More broadly and significantly it stood for two centuries of community between city and College, of joint service to the individual and the Nation. That good government and sound scholarship, education and patriotism, art and spiritual grace, are parts of a whole was the theme of President Hadley's Commemoration Address, and equally so of the historical commemorative meeting on the morning of Pageant Day. It was suggested over and over again in the episodes and allegories performed in the vast Yale Bowl by some seven thousand citizens and students, much more than half of the number women and children. It had influence also in what was not given—for the original programme contained many incidents not performed, and while the elisions were primarily made for practical reasons, the modified plan clung to just those things that were typical of the joint citizenship and joint Americanism of Yale and New Haven.

In 1901 Yale celebrated the bicentenary of her feeble beginning at Saybrook. That was a great academic occasion. New Haven looked on at the rejoicing of ten thousand graduates. The other day New Haven was not only "in it," but the greater part of it, both in the review of history and in the performance itself. What the people did in times past was shown by the people of to-day. The two bicentenaries are not comparable; that of 1901 was a university sedately rejoicing; that of 1916 was a fellowship of town and gown in a popular spectacle, an appeal to the eye by art and grouping and movement.

An out-of-door pageant on the large scale has its special limitations as well as its special opportunities. It is not drama—it must be and ought to be panorama, picture, shifting incident. Looked at from the dramatic standpoint, the pageant was lamentably weak; of dramatic construction or unity there was practically nothing; there was no written play, no epic poem to be presented, little individual acting. The spoken words were few, and more than one critic has said that those few might about as well have been omitted. The "Book of the Pageant" was an admirable work, well worth buying and keeping; but it was neither text nor programme of the pageant; it was a collection of essays, papers, and poems, by Yale men and a few others, dealing with the historical topics touched on in the pageant or otherwise relating to the city and College.

In the performance here and there an individual won a hearty round of applause, but it was for graceful pose and movement rather than for the detailed expression of passion or character. Thus the memory will long linger of the supple, graceful, swift-moving Indian runner who brought to his tribe the news of the white men's coming—a part taken by a well-known Yale athlete, John Overton of '17, distance runner; of the stately movement and picturesque pose of the representative of Peace; and of the charm of that bride, Margaret ap Ienkyn, whose dowry, descending to Elihu Yale, made possible his help to the struggling College.

But chiefly the memory of the day is of masses of color and marvelous costumes pouring at times down the thirty aisles from the rim of the Bowl into the arena, there moving in concert, swaying, crossing, circling, in ordered method and with definite purpose. Mr. Markoe, director of the pageant, had long ago done wonders in this kind of art at the Oxford and South African pageants. Colors that on a stage would clash and scream against one another under the sky and on the green field harmonized or peacefully contrasted. This was a democratic affair in many ways, and one was that the performers furnished their own costumes, but from models

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and colors chosen by the directors. The care, patience, and oversight needed for superintending the costumes, grouping, and rehearsing of seven thousand people may easily be imagined. As one saw the groups before the performance in and about their tents around the Bowl's exterior, one was reminded of an old-time circus multiplied. There and on the city streets before and after the pageant one passed Puritans, Indians, belles of the hoop-skirt era, collegians in bygone attire, old-time red-shirted firemen, Yale Battery members in uniform, and a dozen other varieties. One felt that the performers were both part of the show and part of the people; they gave and got pleasure. Surely anybody would rather be one of the little Indian boys whooping and tumbling, or one of the little Colonial girls playing ball, than the President of the United States or even Dean Jones as George Washington on horseback.

So as the thirty thousand spectators sat, on a perfect October afternoon, scene after scene passed before them until at the end came the tableau of Yale, "mother of men and of colleges," surrounded by her sons and the record of her past. The many thousands of performers and spectators joined in a hymn of praise and aspiration, and the pageant was over.

What had it presented in history and incident? In the Colonial Period the picture of the founding of New Haven and the treaty with the Indians was followed by three scenes acted "synchronously against a background of busy Colonial life." The background was delightful, but the "three rings in a circus" method, as every one called it, had decided disadvantages. One had to watch closely to segregate the ministers founding the College at Saybrook, the riot which accompanied the removal of the books to New Haven, and the first Commencement exercises at New Haven. The Revolutionary Episode showed vividly the demand by the Governor's Foot Guard (Captain Benedict Arnold) for powder to enable them to join the Concord "rebels;" the British invasion of New Haven, when the town was spared because of the College; the leading of Nathan Hale to execution (ex-President Taft's son was Nathan Hale); and President Washington's visit to New Haven in 1789. The Early Nineteenth Century Episode had a light touch in the Town and Gown riot begun between firemen and collegians—both sides most zealously acted by students with "real water and a real pump," as Dickens's Vincent Crummles used to say, and in the fantastic burial of Euclid. It had also a serious and patriotic phase in the scenes depicting the raising of Kansas volunteers in 1856 and the surrender in the Civil War by Confederates to Union soldiers (finely represented by Grand Army veterans) of the body of Theodore Winthrop, of Yale, author of "Cecil Dreeme," and the first Northern officer to fall in actual battle. Finally, the present period was shown in one aspect by the Yale Battery, which maneuvered and fired its three-inch guns.

All these scenes and others were interesting in subject and fitted the purpose; but there was naturally a great difference between them in the relative success of presentation. They involved pantomimic acting on a stage of enormous size, and there were many other difficulties for amateurs to grapple. In their character also some of the scenes were not especially fitted for outdoor pageantry.

From the art point of view, the beauty of the performance rested chiefly in the three interludes between the episodes—the allegory of the passing of the arts and sciences from the Old World to the New, to aid the infant College; the allegory of war and peace; and the "hoop-skirt prom" of the Civil War time. In all these mass and color were employed with fine and sometimes extraordinary effect. In the first a thousand school-children in green and light-violet shades represented by their moving and waving hands the sea; in the second a rather cryptic symbolism was indicated visually in a wonderful grouping of colors and figures; in the third quaintness and rhythmic dancing made the outdoor ball both amusing and delightful.

The music of the occasion was composed by Dr. Horatio Parker, Dean of the Music School, and others of that Faculty, and was rendered by an orchestra of sixty and a chorus of six hundred.

It would be absurd to compare the Pageant with such spectacles as "Caliban," or to expect from it perfection of detail. It was the work of seven thousand amateurs, more than half of whom were children, and was performed once only, with necessarily imperfect rehearsal. It was as truly a community effort as is a community Christmas tree, only in this case college *and* city made the community. Taking it for what it was, and not for what it was not, the Pageant was impressive—in some ways also it was beautiful and distinguished.

R. D. Townsend.

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THE LAKE MOHONK INDIAN CONFERENCE

EDITORIAL CORRESPONDENCE

THE thirty-fourth annual Lake Mohonk Conference on the Indian and Other Dependent Peoples was held at Lake Mohonk October 18–21, Dr. Samuel A. Eliot presiding. The most encouraging note of progress was probably the report of the advance which had been made under the present Administration in the development of industrial and vocational training in the primary and secondary grades of the Indian schools. The ideal outlined in the report of Mr. H. B. Peairs, Supervisor of Indian Schools, was admirable. It is in harmony with the ideals developed for the Negroes by such leaders as General Armstrong, Dr. H. B. Frissell, and Booker T. Washington, and adopted to such a surprising degree for whites, especially in the Western States. To make it effective, however, teachers must be trained, for a well-equipped school-house is useless without well-trained teachers. It would be well for the Indian Bureau to draft Indian teachers from Hampton Institute, the best school for normal training for industrial education in the country; and, if possible, to arrange with Hampton for a one-year course in industrial education for Indian teachers already in the service.

The recent legislation by Congress increasing the power of the Philippine people over their internal affairs was regarded by the Conference as at least of doubtful advantage to the people. On this subject the paragraph of the platform deserves quoting:

> The effect of the rapid withdrawal of American administrators, in anticipation of, and coincident with, this legislation will be watched with unusual interest, but not without misgiving. We believe that this policy of dispensing with the services of trained experts and scientists will have a far-reaching and harmful effect upon the sanitary, social, and economic life of the islands.

The most radical action of the Conference was its adoption of a suggestion made by the presiding officer, Dr. Eliot, who, as a member of the Board of Indian Commissioners and a frequent visitor to the reservations, is very familiar with the conditions of the Indian service. That service is under the direction of a single Indian Commissioner, who is changed with every change in the Federal administration. More frequently than not he has no knowledge of Indian affairs or Indian problems at the time of his appointment. The result is perpetual kaleidoscopic changes not only in the personnel but also in the policies of the Bureau. As a remedy for this condition, which has for years been deprecated by all workers for and among the Indians, Dr. Eliot suggested the transfer of Indian administration from a single commissioner, always of necessity a political appointee, to a non-partisan commission independent of the Indian Department and of all political control. The Inter-State Commerce Commission affords a suggestive precedent for such a course. This suggestion was carefully considered by a very large and representative Business Committee, and after full and prolonged discussion was unanimously adopted, first by the Committee and afterward by the Conference. The function of such a commission, as defined by the platform, would be to frame and submit to Congress a general Indian law to take the place of the present mass of fragmentary, local, and often inconsistent statutes, and then to apply the provisions of such general law to the varying conditions of the various tribes, much as the Inter-State Commerce Commission applies the provisions of the general railway law to the railways of the country. The object of such a commission would be "to promote a consistent, continuing, and developing policy" and "to bring the present abnormal condition of the Indian to an end as speedily as possible by the incorporation of the Indian in the general citizenship of the Nation."

Incidental confirmation of the wisdom of some such plan was furnished by an admirable statement by Duncan C. Scott, Superintendent of the Canadian Indian Office, giving some account of the Canadian method of dealing with the Indian problem. In lieu of our mass of heterogeneous local laws filling three large volumes—laws which no one, not even the Indian Commissioner, can possibly be familiar with—Canada has one law comprised in a pamphlet of about sixty pages. All the laws of Canada, both federal and provincial, are as applicable to Indians as to white men, so that Indians, whether on the reservations or not, are both under the protection of the laws and amenable to their

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provisions. An Indian is defined by law as a male Indian and his descendants. If an Indian woman marries a white man, she and her descendants are legally white and the protection of her person and her property under the law is left to him. In consequence fortune-hunters do not seek Indian wives in order to get for themselves and their children a share in the tribal wealth. These three simple provisions have relieved Canada of many of the complications in which our Indian administration is unfortunately involved. How far these principles could be applied by the United States in solving its present complex Indian problems is a question which cannot be answered without careful study. It would have been well if the Conference had appointed a committee to give the subject such study and report its conclusions to the next annual Conference. It is to be hoped that Mr. Phillips, the permanent Secretary of the Conference, will provide a place for their consideration in the programme and one or more speakers to present the subject to the Conference next year.

LYMAN ABBOTT.

SHOULD MR. WILSON HAVE PROTESTED AGAINST THE INVASION OF BELGIUM?

A NEGATIVE AND AN AFFIRMATIVE VIEW

To the Editors of The Outlook:

In your issue of August 23 there appears an editorial entitled "Shall We Vote for Wilson?" The writer lays the basis for his negative reply chiefly upon the President's failure to protest at the invasion of Belgium by Germany. Mr. Wilson is criticised for "his failure to put into effective practice, in one of the greatest crises of the world's history, those principles of justice and liberty which were written into the character of this Republic by its founders."

It seems almost incredible that The Outlook, which has always stood as the keenest and, I may add, the fairest critic in New York City of contemporary events, can come forth and declare its antagonism to the present National Executive on this score. Leaving everything else out of consideration, I want to say a few words in answer to such an accusation. Very few of the average voters of the day have, or care to take, the time to investigate thoroughly political or even National questions that come up, and many adopt their political creeds entirely from articles and editorials that appear in your pages. Therefore it does not seem right that they should be influenced for one candidate or against another by so unjust a criticism. Your editor writes as if there were but one side to the case, and brings forward the suddenness of the action as the only defense for the failure to protest. I am endeavoring in somewhat general terms to point out, not only why Mr. Wilson was not obliged to protest, but in reality how it was his peculiar duty as head of the United States not to interfere.

In speaking of this "failure to protest" it is implied that one of the two following courses should have been followed. One of these courses would have been for the President to send a note to Germany demanding, in the name of international law, humanity, and respect to the United States, that she refrain from an act already carefully weighed as to its advantages and disadvantages, and upon which the fate of the nation seemed to rest. This note would not have contained any threat, but would have been merely a condemnation of the deed and have expressed the moral disapproval of the United States. In considering the question as to whether such a note should have been sent, there are two ways in which the answer can be made: first, considering whether there was any obligation to make such a demand; and, second, as to the possible results of such action. The United States has taken upon itself the responsibility of the Western Hemisphere and declared itself against European interference on these two continents. In the same declaration we have said that we will not interfere in the affairs of Europe. This policy has been declared by the Monroe Doctrine, confirmed by history, and recommended by common sense. Our President is President of the United States, and his interests are naturally those of the United States. If

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he were seated on a throne, with the power to judge the rights and wrongs of the world, there is little doubt that he should and would have protested at such a violation of international law and human rights. The duty of the President is to look out for the interests of the United States and see that she fulfills her obligations, but does not throw upon him the obligation of reprimanding other nations when the interests of the United States are not at stake. As to the beneficial results of a protest unbacked by force, it is foolish to discuss them. Germany realized that she would lose the moral support of most of the world by her invasion of Belgium, but considered the material advantage to outweigh the natural loss of good will. If the threat of England, with her army and mighty navy, could not deter her from going through with her course of action, what influence could a mere protest from this country have?

If the writer of the editorial did not have in mind such a protest, unbacked by any threat of action upon being ignored, but (as does not seem possible) meant that upon our protest being ignored by Germany we should have thrown ourselves upon the side of the weak and wronged, he is either far ahead of the time or has imagined himself in a millennium that will never exist. An ideal world would soon be created if there were some way of deciding the right and wrong of all questions and if all nations not involved would place their men and resources on the side of the right. But what would become of a single nation that attempted this plan of action to-day? If the United States had started on such a policy, we would have been almost constantly involved in struggles since the founding of our Republic. There are but few periods in the past hundred years when some kind of an unjust war has not been in progress. Why did we not aid the Greeks against the Turks, the Boers against the English, or in other instances stand up for the weak and oppressed? The same principle can be illustrated in individual life. While it cannot be denied that the powerful and rich should aid the weak and poor both by deeds and resources, a single person who tried to relieve all by himself would soon be ruined without having accomplished anything.

I am not saying that the principle of protesting is at fault, but simply that it was not for the President of our country so to act. The picture of the United States taking upon itself alone to punish all the wrong-doers in the world is an impossible one. An international tribunal with international police is a possibility and a desired one, but no one nation can take upon itself to be that tribunal and use its armies as that police.

It does not seem right for us to shut our eyes to all deeds in the eastern half of the world, but the President is bound by his position first to consider the interests of our country.

Mr. Wilson was not only bound by precedent and the declared policy of our country not to interfere, but was under no obligation in international law to so do. The United States would soon be crushed if it attempted to put down every unjust move that is made, and our President should not be condemned for having the common sense to observe this fact.

JESSE HOYT.

North East Harbor, Maine.

We accept our correspondent's admirable statement of the question at issue. The question falls, as he says, into two parts: Had the United States the duty to make a protest, and, What would have been the results of such a protest?

We are convinced that the United States was both legally and morally bound to make the protest. In the international conventions agreed upon at The Hague in 1907 were the following:

1. The territory of neutral Powers is inviolable.

2. Belligerents are forbidden to move troops or convoys of either munitions of war or supplies across the territory of a neutral Power.

5. A neutral Power must not allow any of the acts referred to in Articles 2 to 4 to occur in its territory.

These articles were signed as a contract by Germany, Belgium, and for the United States by Joseph H. Choate, Horace Porter, David Jayne Hill, and other American delegates. The agreement of the delegates was ratified by the Governments of Germany, the United States, and Belgium, the German and American ratification being deposited with the Dutch Foreign Minister at The Hague on November 27, 1909, and by Belgium on August 8, 1910. The articles were also duly signed and ratified by Russia and France. The statement contained in these articles that the territory of neutral Powers is inviolable embodies the universal and unquestioned rule of international law. The

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above-quoted articles of Convention V was a special and contractual promise by each of the Powers that signed it and to all other Powers signing it that the obligation be observed. Those who deny that the United States was bound by this promise quote Article 20 of the same convention, which reads as follows:

> The provisions of the present convention do not apply except between contracting Powers, and then only if all the belligerents are parties to the convention.

Those who deny that the promise of the United States was binding say that, as England, Turkey, Montenegro, and Servia have all been belligerents in the present war, and as they did not ratify the neutrality agreement, the United States was released from its promise. But when Germany violated the territory of Belgium she was not at war with England, Servia, or Montenegro, nor was Turkey at war at all. At that time Germany was at war only with Russia and France. These Powers had ratified the convention, hence it was binding upon them all. To have protested to Germany would not have been, as our correspondent assumes, "butting in" spontaneously upon the affairs of European wrong-doers. In plain layman language, the protest could have been something like this:

With the approval and desire of the great European Powers, the American Government in 1907 met the German Government at The Hague and signed an agreement that the territory of neutral Powers was inviolable, and that no neutral Power must allow any belligerent to cross its territories. You have broken that agreement. On August 2, 1914, at seven o'clock in the evening, you told the Belgian Government that you proposed to cross its territory with your armies, that you would pay for all damage caused, but that if Belgians resisted you would shoot them down as enemies. Belgium replied the following morning that both self-respect and its contractual promise forbade it to permit the German army to cross its territory. You thereupon, on August 4, declared war and invaded Belgium. The Government of the United States deeply regrets that the solemn covenant which it entered into with Germany and Belgium in 1907 has thus been broken by Germany, and takes this occasion to say, respectfully but firmly, that this violation has produced an unhappy impression upon the Government of the United States and a determination to see that international agreements with regard to the neutral rights of its own citizens in the European war are strictly and faithfully observed.

What would have been the possible results of such a protest? Its first effect would have been moral. It would have put the United States on record before the world as believing that international contracts and treaties are something more than scraps of paper. It would have given the small neutral states of the world an encouragement to believe that they had at least the sympathy, if not the actual help, of the United States in protecting their just neutral rights. It would have given the Government of the United States a position of moral dignity and power as a possible important factor in settling the terms of peace. And, finally, without a threat, without a warlike word, it would so clearly have defined the attitude of the United States that we doubt if the Lusitania case would ever have happened. It would at the outset of the war have established a precedent and a policy which would have been of the greatest value in unifying National sentiment, and thus preventing the dangerous outbreak of un-American and pro-German propaganda, from the effects of which this country is still suffering. In a word, the protest would have been legal, peaceful, moral, manly, and expedient.

With all due respect to our correspondent, we do not think that when he wrote his letter to us he understood the facts. He says that we were under no obligation of international law. He says that, if we should have protested as to Belgium, we ought equally to have protested in behalf of the Greeks against the Turks or the Boers against the English. But we had not signed a contract with the Greeks to observe their rights against the Turks or with the Boers to preserve their rights against the English. We had signed and ratified a contract with Belgium *forbidding* any belligerent to move troops across her territory when she was at peace. We were therefore under a very distinct legal obligation, and if the President had wisely considered "the interests of our country" he would have foreseen that the striking opportunity afforded him to state his position in the war then commencing on the rights of neutrals and non-combatants would have been the very greatest thing he could have done to protect "the interests of our country."—THE EDITORS.

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WILSON, HUGHES, TAFT, AND MEXICO

BY GREGORY MASON

HOW THE AMERICAN PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION AND THE RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES TO MEXICO ARE VIEWED BY FIRST CHIEF VENUSTIANO CARRANZA, GENERAL ALVARO OBREGON, GENERAL PABLO GONZALES, AND MR. CANDIDO AGUILAR, MEXICAN SECRETARY OF FOREIGN RELATIONS, AS EXPRESSED IN INTERVIEWS WITH THE OUTLOOK'S STAFF CORRESPONDENT IN MEXICO

Early in September, Mr. Mason, of The Outlook's editorial staff, left this country for a study of conditions in Mexico, as we have already announced. He has been spending the intervening weeks in that country. This is the first article resulting from his experiences.—THE EDITORS.

"Wilson has not kept faith with Mexico."—*Venustiano Carranza, First Chief of the Constitutionalists and de facto ruler of Mexico.*

"Wilson makes too many declarations which have no facts behind them."—*Alvaro Obregon, Mexican Secretary of War.*

"Wilson's policy is not clear; it is not frank; it is not clean."—*General Pablo Gonzales, Commanding the Military Division of the South.*

"Wilson's policy has made Mexico feel like a man at whom is pointed a loaded and cocked pistol and who is kept in this uncomfortable and uncertain position for a long and nerve-racking period. If the trigger is to be pulled, the man would prefer to have it done at once, so that the worst would be over quickly."—*Candido Aguilar, Mexican Secretary of Foreign Relations.*

THESE four statements, each as blunt as a high explosive shell, from the four men of perhaps the greatest influence in Mexico to-day, constitute a broadside against the defenses of the President's Mexican policy. Their effect will not be less because the blows are unexpected.

Probably even the bitterest of the American critics of the President's Mexican policy have not expected to hear denunciation of Mr. Wilson from the men who are at the head of the Government in Mexico which has been recognized by the American President, and whose representatives are still in conference at Atlantic City with representatives of the American Government. Criticism of Mr. Wilson from Americans in Mexico, yes, or from Mexicans not in sympathy with the Carranza party; but an arraignment of Mr. Wilson's policy toward Mexico from the men whom he has acknowledged to be the legal leaders of that "distressed and sensitive people"—this, it can fairly be said, must come as a surprise to even the closest observers of affairs south of the Rio Grande.

Certainly it surprised me. And for weeks I had talked with sub-secretaries and generals—lesser, but not the least, lights in the successful revolution. All seemed to view the re-election of President Wilson as vastly preferable to the election of Mr. Hughes; in fact, most of them seemed to feel that the latter event would be virtually the end of the world for them, for they professed to believe that the election of the former Supreme Court Justice would mean certain and bloody and, for them, obliterating war.

Then within three days came interviews with the four men who are perhaps the most powerful leaders in Mexico to-day—Carranza, Obregon, Gonzales, and Aguilar—in which all were frank to criticise President Wilson's course toward Mexico, and in which three of them intimated what Gonzales openly declared, that "direct aggression from Hughes" was preferable to "the doubtful friendship of Wilson."

The interview with Pablo Gonzales came first, and the frank declarations which he made seemed to be the sparks which stirred Carranza, Obregon, and Aguilar to similar explosions of frankness.

Pablo Gonzales, who was making a moderate living from a small flour mill in Coahuila when the Madero revolution broke out, first made his name heard in Mexico as a modern

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Leonidas when with four hundred men he held a mountain pass against several thousand Federals. But Americans remember him chiefly as one of the three headlong soldiers who swept down the country abreast and cleaned every mountain pass of Huertistas for their common chief, Carranza. The other two leaders in this spectacular drive were, of course, Obregon and Villa. It will be remembered that Obregon commanded in the west and Villa in the center, while Gonzales, leading the forces of the east, won his greatest military fame by the capture of Monterey and Tampico. Lately he has been in charge of the operations against the bandit Zapata. It was during a lull in the campaign against the Morelos chieftain, while Gonzales was on a visit to the capital, that I saw the man who is expected to succeed Carranza as First Chief when Carranza resigns to run for the Presidency.

General Gonzales received me in his house at Tacubaya, a suburb of Mexico City. For this handsome building, a perfect example of the Spanish-Moorish blend of architecture, which has given to Mexico her most beautiful structures, he is reputed to pay a high rent —unlike some of the other chiefs of the revolution, who have helped themselves to the property of their political enemies with no regard for legal formalities.

Gonzales is above medium height, well molded in figure, and rather light in skin for a Mexican. He wears spectacles, and the dense black bristle of his mustache is closely trimmed. He has a strong chin and a strong brow, and his hands are knit like a wrestler's. His most impressive asset is a subtile air of good breeding, the brand of the thoroughbred, suggesting a similar air which is characteristic of the best type of American professional man.

He was quite cold. He said he had been misquoted in the past by American correspondents and intended to take no more chances, but if I would write out my questions he would answer them in writing.

But carelessly, or else with the faithlessness that has been the greatest flaw in the character of many Mexican leaders, he gave out, or permitted to be given out, carbon copies of his answers to my questions to the newspapers of Mexico City and the correspondents of the American press fifteen hours before his messenger brought a copy of his replies to me. As his statements were of a sensational nature, and as it was believed that he had made them with the tacit consent of Carranza, his remarks were printed in full in the Mexican papers and in part by some newspapers in the United States. But the official translation of his astonishingly frank statements in regard to the political relations between the United States and Mexico is herewith presented in the United States for the first time.

One of my written questions was:

"What has been the effect of the Pershing expedition on banditry in Mexico, on the feelings of the Mexican people toward the United States, and on the feelings of the same people toward the Constitutionalist Government?"

General Gonzales answered:

"The effect has been bad in all respects. Instead of reducing brigandage, it has stimulated the formation of new bands, which are becoming united in the disposition to repel the foreign invaders, and which on this account are regarded with sympathy by the Mexican people. The remnants of the Villista bandits are revivified and are transforming themselves into patriotic crusaders, thanks to the Pershing expedition. The feeling aroused in the Mexican people toward the United States by this expedition is unfavorable, naturally, and I do not think I need to say why. With regard to the Constitutionalist Government, the effect has been to arouse in the people feelings of unity and solidity greater than ever before. In the face of the possibility of foreign war the Mexican people have shown plainly that they stand with the Government."

FRIENDSHIP OR OPEN WAR

The next question was: "Do you approve, in general, President Wilson's policy towards Mexico? And if not, what do you consider have been his principal mistakes?"

The General's answer, stunning in its blunt directness, was:

"I do not approve Wilson's policy in general, for a reason which is fundamental with me, as I believe it is with every honest man, namely, because Wilson's policy is not clear, it is not frank, it is not clean. I cannot reconcile the Pershing expedition with the bombastic and often-repeated declarations of President Wilson of his respect and sympathy for Mexico. I wish that President Wilson would be our friend and give proof of his friendship with deeds, or that he would be our enemy and declare open war on us.

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But he ought not to exasperate us with his policy of double dealing, overwhelming us, on the one hand, with honeyed words and protestations of sympathy, and, on the other hand, protecting our enemies and obstructing the consolidation of our Government. What I have just said points out the greatest error in Mr. Wilson's policy, and, I will repeat, indicates his lack of clearness and frankness."

My next question went further back into the history of Mexican-American relations. "Was President Taft guilty," I asked General Gonzales, "of discouraging the cause of democracy and constitutionalism in Mexico by the coolness of his attitude toward the Madero Government and by his toleration of the alleged unsympathetic attitude of Henry Lane Wilson toward Madero?"

"I believe that he was guilty," was the General's reply, "although not for the first thing, but for the second. Strictly speaking, President Taft was not obliged to sympathize with our martyred President, and he might have been doing his duty even though maintaining a cold attitude toward our Government. But he was obliged to disavow the intrigues of Mr. Henry Lane Wilson."

"Is it true that Americans are less liked and respected in Mexico than other foreigners, and if so, why?"

"It is not true. If there is any particularly noble quality in the Mexican people, it is that of generous hospitality and appreciation and respect for all foreigners in general who come to Mexico. In regard to the Americans in particular, it must be noted that many Mexicans have traveled in the United States and others have received their education there, and these Mexicans have brought back and spread feelings of cordial esteem for the United States and all its sons. Unfortunately, the recent policy of President Wilson has taken a course which has offended Mexicans, and has caused some popular resentment against the United States. But that has been incidental, and has never reached the stage where it was exhibited in acts against any individual American. At present Americans are considered as equal with other foreigners, and I can assure you that there is a good foundation for the increase and strengthening of cordiality in the relations between the two Governments. Naturally the future character of our sentiments towards the Americans will depend upon the way in which we are treated by them."

The next question put to General Gonzales was as to whether the American people could not in some way co-operate with reconstruction in Mexico without provoking the natural resentment that intervention would arouse?

"I believe," was the reply, "that the majority of the American people do not want war with Mexico, and will not approve any form of intervention. Nothing else could be expected of the good sense of a people which judges honestly and impartially and which is sure that such a conflict could never be justified by history, either from the point of view of justice or even from the point of view of self-interest, for from armed intervention Mexico would receive great injury, while the United States itself would lose much money and blood without accomplishing what every one desires and what could be accomplished more easily and more rapidly by honorable and friendly measures—that is, the re establishment of order and prosperity in Mexico. The help that the United States could lend us without hurting our patriotic sentiments is very simple; it is nothing else than to maintain toward us the same attitude which it would maintain toward any other friendly nation, not to place obstacles in the way of our efforts to subdue the disturbers of law and order, nor to hinder us from obtaining the supplies which other friendly governments are allowed to get from the United States.

"The Pershing expedition and the embargo on certain articles which the Constitutional Government had been obtaining in the United States have retarded the complete pacification and reconstruction of the country by at least a year. I will repeat—and I speak with frankness, because I believe that in this way the honest and cultured part of the American people will be better impressed—I will repeat that the ambiguous policy of President Wilson is resulting disastrously for the very ends which he is attempting to gain; and while such a policy continues it is useless to demand that the Constitutionalist Government finish the work of reconstruction, because its efforts will be fruitless before the artificially maintained vitality of our enemies, who at each blow given them by the Constitutionalists receive some direct or indirect support from some foreign nation. I insist that the situation must be defined, and that the American Government, if it is a friend having confidence in us, should cease pre-

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senting obstacles to our labor; and if it is an enemy and is bent on creating constant difficulties for us, should at once proceed to declare open war on us and force us to accept a painful, prolonged, and bloody struggle in which you will suffer nearly as much as we. National dignity does not permit us to accept foreign commissions to manage our finances, and, on the other hand, we have enough capable men and enough natural resources to work out our own salvation if we can only devote ourselves exclusively to it, without losing any more time and strength in combating difficulties artificially piled up in our way by foreign Powers. The Constitutionalist army has captured in battle with rebels arms and ammunition straight from American factories, and it is well known that the enemies of the Mexican Government plot and connive and distribute their propaganda in American cities with the absolute toleration of the American authorities."

The last question was frankly political.

"What do you expect, or what does Mexico expect, would result from the election of Hughes in the United States?"

"It is well known," was the reply, "especially since the Presidency of Mr. Roosevelt, that the Republican party in the United States is imperialistic—that is to say, it is aggressive, and is given to invading weak countries in pursuance of its international policies, while the Democratic party is more moderate and restrained in this respect. Nevertheless, the downright acts of the Democratic party do not seem to confirm this theory. But, indeed, I cannot say whether Mexico can expect from the Republican candidate any better treatment than she has had from the Democratic President.

"I can say, however, that in case the imperialistic reputation of the Republican party should be confirmed, I would prefer frank aggression from Mr. Hughes to the doubtful friendship of Mr. Wilson."

AN UNTUTORED SOLDIER ON ACTS AND WORDS

With the typewritten copy of General Gonzales's replies to my questionnaire I sought the most influential men in the *de facto* Government to get their approval or condemnation of Don Pablo's opinions. Of course either approval or condemnation of such radical remarks would be news.

General Alvaro Obregon, Secretary of War, the untutored soldier who drove Huerta from Mexico City, and who later broke the power of the Conventionist party and the boastful Villa-Zapata alliance, was taking his siesta in the courtyard of Chapultepec Castle. Aroused from his doze, he came forward to greet me, clad in what he called his "undress" uniform. It was very undress indeed, consisting of tan leather slippers, white silk socks, tan military trousers, and a gray coat sweater. Even handicapped by that garb, he was a fine figure of a man, strong, erect, commanding. A frequent twinkle in his clear hazel eyes, something about the angle of his nose, and the way he squared his elbows when he talked seemed to suggest the Irish blood which he is said to have.

The enemies of Obregon say that his chief fault is a swaggering impetuosity, but on this occasion he was modest, contained, and very diplomatic. He said that he had not seen the newspaper publications of the remarks of the man who is supposed to be his closest rival for succession to the power that is now Carranza's, and he apologized because "I don't get time to read the newspapers." When asked for his opinion on political affairs, he continually protested that he was a soldier, not a politician, and would veer the discussion to machine guns or the question of the best salve for horses' feet. But when pressed for a statement of his approval or disapproval of the essential criticisms of President Wilson uttered by Gonzales, he hesitated a moment, and then said, quickly:

"Wilson made a grave mistake when he sent General Pershing's expedition across the border. He should have held back his force long enough to have permitted us to arrange to co-operate with Pershing.

"Another complaint we have to make about Wilson is that his Government tolerates the secret shipment of munitions to Villa, Zapata, and other Mexican bandits.

"But the greatest failing of President Wilson is that his acts so seldom coincide with his words. Wilson makes too many declarations which have no facts behind them. You need not examine his Mexican policy for substantiation of this; just look at the record of his dealings with Germany."

THE PISTOL AT MEXICO'S HEAD

Candido Aguilar, who holds the office of *Secretario de Relaciones*, an office equivalent to Secretary of State in our Government, is a self-made man. Because of this fact he is often the butt of the wit of a certain class of

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Americans in Mexico, who, it must be admitted with shame, seem to lose in a foreign country all admiration for such democratic principles and traditions as they profess to cherish as a priceless heritage when they are at home.

Aguilar is not one of the most brilliant thinkers in Mexico, but he is a representative member of a small group of surprisingly intelligent and creditable men whom Carranza has gathered about him as his immediate advisers. It is the presence in office of Aguilar and others like him which gives foundation for the silly taunt of some Americans that the Mexican revolution "is a revolution of *mozos*." The word *mozo* covers a multitude of unskilled occupations described by a number of words in English. In general, though, it means a man-servant engaged to do all kinds of menial work about a house. Mr. Aguilar was indeed a *mozo* in the State of Vera Cruz before the revolution. The more credit to him therefor! The revolution is indeed a revolution of *mozos*. That is to say, for all its plans gone astray, for all its many false leaders, for all its unthinking adherents and its engrafted motives of loot and banditry, the Mexican revolution was, and still is, the expression of a genuine and widespread need of social reform.

But to come back to Aguilar. Even the Americans who one moment refer with pride to a certain rail-splitter who became President of the United States, and the next moment taunt Aguilar with his *mozo* past—even these Americans admit that Aguilar wears his evening clothes as well as any European diplomat. And better than the average diplomat he talks. He is polite, engaging, and very frank. For instance, in regard to the Pershing expedition he admitted, what General Gonzales would not admit, that our invasion of Mexico had greatly injured the Carranza Government in the eyes of the Mexican people.

"The effect of the Pershing expedition has been not only to foster the very sort of banditry which it was intended to stamp out," he said, "but at the same time it has hurt the Mexican Government with the masses of the population, who have asked why the Government has not driven out the invaders. And it has also greatly increased popular enmity towards Americans, so that in total its effect has been that of a boomerang. It has hurt the very governments and parties which it was calculated to help, and assisted the very factions which it was intended to injure.

"The invasion of Vera Cruz by the Americans had the same sort of effect," Secretary Aguilar continued. "The Mexican people naturally felt that the invasion was an infraction of their national rights and was not part of a mere private quarrel between the United States and Huerta, as President Wilson declared."

The Secretary stopped and looked at me keenly. "I am talking to you pretty frankly, and I have a reputation for taciturnity among the reporters," he said; "but the First Chief knows The Outlook well and he believes it intends to be fair and is ready to tell both sides of any question. Much of the trouble between the United States and Mexico has been due to misunderstandings. All that honest and intelligent Mexicans want is that the truth shall be told."

He paused again, as if to get his direction, and then continued, more rapidly:

"The Mexican people are grateful to President Wilson for understanding, as President Taft did not, that the revolution in Mexico is a genuine social movement. They are grateful to Wilson for his intelligence and his courage in refusing to recognize Huerta. But they feel that Wilson's policy has at times been marked by vacillation and double dealing, or, at least, that his words and his deeds have not always been reconcilable with each other. What Mexico wants from the American President, whatever his name may be, is a policy that is firm, frank, consistent, and constructive. Mexico would even prefer open and honest hostility to false friendship.

"Wilson's policy has made Mexico feel like a man at whom is pointed a loaded and cocked pistol and who is kept in this uncomfortable and uncertain position for a long and nerve-racking period. If the trigger is to be pulled, the man would prefer to have it done at once, so that the worst would be over quickly. But, naturally, he would prefer to have his enemy put away the gun and become an honest friend."

This interview with Secretary Aguilar took place in his office in the *Relaciones* building in Mexico City on the morning of October 17. I was given to understand that I was receiving an authorized interview with *carte blanche* to quote the Secretary's remarks, for, he said, as above recorded, "I am talking to you pretty frankly, . . . but the First Chief knows The Outlook well and he believes

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it intends to be fair and is ready to tell both sides of any question." On the evening of October 18, three hours before I left Mexico City for the United States, a friend of Mr. Aguilar's came to me with the message that "the Secretary hoped" I would not use much of the interview "until after the election in the United States, for he feared that his remarks might be considered indiscreet if published before November 7." But if I would promise not to publish this interview until after election the Secretary would send me "a statement much stronger and much more startling to be used later." I replied that the news value of the interview would lie in its immediate use, and that I would have to use my own judgment about holding it.

A despatch published in the New York "World" of October 18 seems to contain the explanation for Secretary Aguilar's change of mind. Speaking of the interview which General Gonzales gave me as published above, and which, as already explained, leaked out in part, and was fragmentarily published in the "World," the despatch, dated "Atlantic City, October 17," says:

"After reading the interview, in which General Gonzales, purporting to speak for the Carranza Government, virtually declared that President Wilson is a hypocrite and that he would prefer direct aggression from Hughes to the doubtful friendship of President Wilson, Dr. Cabrera (the head of the Mexican Commission at Atlantic City) sent a long cable to Secretary of War (it should be Secretary of Foreign Relations) Aguilar, asking an explanation." The parentheses are my own.

So doubtless it was the realization of the full extent of the commotion which the remarks of Gonzales had caused which made Aguilar desire the recall of his own statements.

General Venustiano Carranza, however, up to the time that this article goes to press, has made no effort to recall his statements of the same tenor as those of Gonzales, Obregon, and Aguilar, nor, so far as I am aware, has he given duplicate interviews to other periodicals or papers than The Outlook. By this very consistency and self-restraint the First Chief proves that he is an unusual Mexican.

And, speaking seriously, the First Chief is an unusual Mexican. I am frank to confess that when I saw him guiding the young revolution in Chihuahua two and a half years ago I doubted that he would ever reach the eminence which to-day he occupies. But Carranza has much more force than his somewhat unmagnetic exterior suggests. What his enemies call his "stubbornness and unreasonableness" is really his greatest asset. He is tremendously determined and almost preternaturally cool about pursuing his end. Men who were with him when his cause and his life seemed not worth a fiddlestick's end say that he never lost his quiet, smiling confidence in himself. He is hard to fluster. And he has developed a great deal in two years and a half; he is less stiff, more affable, more at ease, and more worldly-wise. And he seems to have a rare ability in picking men, in playing one man off against another, and in gradually getting rid of the undesirables without fuss, but by a process which is safer, if slower, than the usual "off with his head" tactics of Mexican rulers.

Getting at Carranza in the National Palace is a graduated process, like getting at the center of a ball of twine. First you are ushered through a little anteroom, where you leave behind your *mozo*, if you have one. Then you advance to the waiting-room for all persons of less distinction than foreign ambassadors or generals. The next step takes you into the exalted atmosphere of the room where dignitaries of these ranks cool their heels. Then, leaving behind the generals and ambassadors, you pass through a sort of office for the undersecretaries of the First Chief, from which you are ushered into the Green Room, where the Mexican Presidents give public audiences.

Here, under a ceiling at least twenty-five feet above a soft green carpet two inches thick, Carranza was standing with his back to the tall windows which let in a dim light. He sat down with his back still to the windows, yet did not remove his smoked spectacles, which he wears almost constantly. In response to a question in regard to his opinion of the recent Mexican policy of the United States, he said:

"Let us begin at the beginning. Wilson has made many mistakes in his treatment of Mexico, but he inherited a handicap from Taft.

"In 1913, after my refusal to recognize Huerta following his foul murder of Madero, I got a message from Henry Lane Wilson, who was then the Ambassador of the United

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States to Mexico. In this message Lane Wilson urged me to abandon my revolution and recognize Huerta, saying that the United States and all European Powers had recognized him, and that it would be idle for me to revolt. This, of course, we now know to be false. Later, Mr. Silliman, the American Vice-Consul at Saltillo, approached me, saying that Ambassador Wilson wanted to know what I would name as my conditions for suppressing the revolution. The conditions I named were: first, the exile of Huerta, Blanquet, and others who had taken a leading part in the *coup d'état* against Madero; second, the deliverance of the capital into the hands of men from the three revolutionary States of Coahuila, Chihuahua, and Sonora; third, the convening of Congress for the legitimate election of a President."

He stopped and smiled, remarking, "Most of these things have been accomplished since I sent that message to Ambassador Wilson. Yet when he and Huerta received it they laughed with delicious scorn."

Carranza chuckled reminiscently. "I suppose they thought I would name as my conditions a million dollars and a free passage to Paris, or more probably, perhaps, a life job as Governor of Coahuila."

"But how do you blame Mr. Taft?" I asked the First Chief.

"Not so much for any sins of commission as for tolerating the course of his subordinate, Ambassador Wilson."

"Do you blame in any degree Taft, Knox, or Ambassador Wilson for the death of Madero?"

"To this extent: that any one of them could have prevented the assassination, for they knew the danger of it (especially Lane Wilson), yet raised not a finger for Madero's protection."

"You are sure that Ambassador Wilson knew of the peril threatening the martyred President?"

"I am sure of it, yet he did nothing."

Carranza was talking steadily and with much conviction in an even bass. Unlike most Mexicans, he talks almost entirely with his voice. His large hands lay idle on his knees during the whole interview. This conversation with him lasted for an hour and a half, and he gave me his own defense against the principal criticisms that his enemies have made against him, particularly in relation to his financial policy. Space requires that this part of the interview be reserved for another article. But his remarks in regard to the policy of President Taft naturally led on to important utterances in regard to the policy of President Wilson.

"Among the finest things that any American President has ever done," said the First Chief, "was Wilson's refusal to tolerate the tyrant Huerta. It was such a noble act as one would expect from an emancipated and democratic people, and it was an inspiration to all Latin-American republics.

"But after he had thus actively discouraged the reactionaries we revolutionists expected he would actively encourage us. Yet for a year after the beginning of the revolution the embargo prevented our getting much-needed aid from the United States. This set back the revolution at least a year and a half.

"Still, that was only non-action. And we are not asking for material intervention from the United States in our favor"—he said this very emphatically. "All we want is a sympathetic attitude from the American people."

"How about a loan?" I suggested.

"No, no," he said, still more emphatically; "we want no material intervention from the United States. Only your sympathy—that is all we are asking."

The First Chief's tone was more excited at this point of the interview than at any other. He seemed to have a very deep-seated fear of any kind of direct material contact between his Government and the Government of the United States.

"But lately," Carranza went on, "we have had to complain of very serious interference in our affairs by your Government. We consider the invasion of our country by the forces of General Pershing very wrong and very unfair. We would not have complained much if the American army had made a quick dash across the border and then withdrawn. But maintaining the expedition in Mexico, like a thorn in our side, is very unjust and has hurt our Government.

"We cannot make such acts of your President accord with his words of sympathy for us. It is this inconsistent policy from your Government which is responsible for the disfavor in which Americans find themselves held in Mexico to-day. It seems to us that your President has not kept faith with Mexico."

"Can the remarks of General Gonzales in

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criticism of President Wilson be considered as official?" the First Chief was asked.

"No," was the reply. "General Gonzales's remarks were very interesting, but he spoke only for himself. Nevertheless we would prefer a firm, frank, consistent policy from the United States to such a policy as Wilson's. But, as I said before, we are grateful to Wilson for understanding that this is a social revolution and for the sympathy which he expressed in his stand against Huerta. And we believe that your Republican Presidents are sometimes inclined to be too overbearing toward weaker nations. On the other hand, their foreign policies usually have the virtue of consistency. What we would like from the next American President, whatever his name may be, is a Mexican policy which will combine sympathy with firmness and consistency."

In that last sentence Carranza spoke right to the point. It is unfortunate that the Mexican situation should be the football of politics in the United States. Political partisans inevitably fly to extremes, and there is neither truth nor justice in ascribing all the ills of Mexico to any one man. The ideal course would be to have our policy toward Mexico based on public knowledge of facts perhaps best ascertained by a disinterested commission of experts. But as the millennium is not here, it is to be hoped that whatever party is in power after the election will study the Mexican situation in a scientific spirit, and will try to combine in its policy the sympathy that the Mexican leaders think they have found in one of the great American parties with the firmness and consistency which they profess to have seen in the other.

The next article in the series on Mexico by Mr. Mason will contain an estimate of the position of the *de facto* Government of Mexico, an analysis of its weaknesses, and an analysis of its strength. In this connection will be printed authorized statements by First Chief Carranza, General Gonzales, Cabinet members, and other influential Mexicans, setting forth their own view of the progress which the Carranza Government has made towards reconstruction, and of the problems which still remain to be solved. The Outlook will also print a letter from the Archbishop of Yucatan, the Rt. Rev. Martin Tritschler y Cordova, relating to the treatment of the Catholic churches and schools in Mexico by Carranzistas. This letter takes issue with Señor Cabrera's statements, lately quoted in The Outlook, that the outrages on the Church were the work of bandits and not of Constitutionalists.—THE EDITORS.

THE SPREAD OF THE TREE OF LIGHT

BY GRACE HUMPHREY

YEARS ago there was a lonely student in Germany, the home of Christmas festivities. From the deserted street he saw candles glittering on many family trees. But everything for Christmas was inside.

That lonely holiday season the American never forgot; years later, describing it to a friend, he added: "I know now—do something for some one, and you'll be less lonely yourself."

"There must be many lonely people here in New York at Christmas," said the friend; "wouldn't it be wonderful to have a tree for them?"

A tree for the community, excluding no lonely or friendless soul—the idea took hold of them both and grew into tangible form. To the question of place, there was only one answer—Madison Square, in the very heart of Manhattan, the park that is peculiarly the people's own, the poor men's club-house, as it is named by the old men who spend the night on its benches.

"It's the loneliest spot at night in all New York," said one of them. "Why, there ain't nothin' but loneliness here!"

So this unique Christmas party was determined on, and invitations were sent to every person through the press. The reporters were

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summoned and the plans laid before them. They whipped out their books and asked for the list of names.

"But this is impersonal, absolutely impersonal," said the two friends, at which the seasoned reporters smiled grimly. Any individual in New York doing something and not wanting the advertisement? Oh, no!

"But this is different!" they persisted. "It is for Christmas, so it must be a surprise; names must not be mentioned. It's a gift, so it must not be appraised. It stands for good will to all people—the lonely rich and the lonely poor. All we want is that they shall enjoy it."

"Well, well," said one reporter, spokesman for the rest, "cut out all that sentiment stuff. We're not here for that kind of story. We want the facts, the names of the people who are putting up the money, and how much they're giving, and we want their photographs."

"I'm sorry, gentlemen, but we have no list for you."

"Well, anyway," with a chuckle, "we've got your names."

"But we're not it," said the two friends.

"Fellows," said one reporter, catching their idea, "here's the chance of a lifetime. Let's make a great story of this, and send it all over the country—something ideal carried out in this city, without a string of rich men's names! Why, these people are anonymous idealists!"

And the secret was kept, though during the next fortnight it had to be shared with a goodly number. And this air of mystery and secrecy the press has preserved year after year; it is, they say, their part of the fun. Each holiday time the same reporters go to see the committee, till now they are the best of friends.

Last December one new man went, and after the plans had been discussed he was cautioned not to give any names. "No, indeed," said he; "they've coached me already. Why, if any reporter told now, he'd be put off the force!" How jealously and thoroughly the secret is guarded is shown by the story of the Western mayor who insisted on having a personal interview, and spent seven hours in finding the committee.

The mere announcement of the community festival found a quick response among the people. The finest tree in its great park was sent by the Adirondack Club. Contributions large and small were received, many sent anonymously "for the lonely of New York." Singers offered their talent. It seemed that everywhere were men and women with the spirit of Christmas in their hearts.

In Madison Square the policemen had never seen such curiosity and interest. The park habitués could hardly believe their eyes. "It's the first time in a good many years that any one's remembered us!" they said. And when on Christmas eve the chimes sounded from the high tower, trumpeters signaled for silence, and the community tree was lighted, every one of the waiting thousands felt the spirit of Christmas.

"At last they know what we want," said an East Side woman; "something beautiful to look at and lovely music to listen to, and nobody to thank."

For at once the tree belonged to the community. "Who's doing this?" was asked occasionally, and the answer came, "Nobody knows—it's just our tree!"

Thanks to the press, the story of the community Christmas tree was told all over the country, and here in America, the land so new that Europe says it has no traditions, so commercial it has no sentiment, a beautiful National custom was born.

For the Tree of Light has not only become an annual Christmas party, it has spread beyond the fondest dream of the two friends. Cities and towns and villages and hamlets have borrowed the idea—one hundred and sixty places the second year, over three hundred in 1914, probably a thousand last year. And this Christmas eve, from ocean to ocean, from north to south, in every State, community trees will be lighted, making visible the spirit of the day.

"Dear Tree of Light," wrote a little place in western New York after its third celebration, "never before has our village expressed so true and so beautiful a community spirit. And we write you this, Tree of Light, hoping it may give you pleasure to hear of one candle burning in the country."

Each community tree is gladly welcomed by the one in Madison Square. That is the parent tree, all the others are its branches; and never was there a tree in the forest so proud of its children. For with each branch the Tree of Light has sent some of its spirit, so that all the community celebrations are similar.

The only gifts are music and light—gifts for all without discrimination, which are in themselves stimulating. No one with eyes

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to see or ears to hear is neglected, no matter how large the crowds, no matter what the age or race or religion of the spectators.

If the name of the donor would only be announced, everything would be given in New York. Baskets of food, gifts of many kinds, are repeatedly offered on that condition. But "no gifts" is the policy of the committee, and the press has emphasized this idea.

In one Middle Western city an enthusiastic group planned a wholesale distribution of gifts from the tree. But there happened to live in that town a man who had witnessed the Madison Square celebration the year before, and he promptly wrote to the papers describing it, and adding: "By all means reach needy children through the usual charity organizations; but don't, I beg of you, distribute gifts from the tree! Let us, too, have carol singing; but let us keep our tree free from the material misinterpretation of Christmas, that we may learn the real meaning of the day." And immediately the gifts were given up and the Tree of Light plans adopted. And this story, too, the press told everywhere.

The lack of gifts is appreciated even by those persons who need gifts at Christmas time. In one large city Mrs. Wealthy observed a young girl with bare hands looking intently at the tree. It was extremely cold, and the rich lady impulsively pulled off her warm gloves and offered them to the girl. "No, no," was her reply; "I don't want them." Then, as if realizing that this might seem ungracious on Christmas eve, she added, "You see, ma'am, I didn't come to get a present, I just want to look at the tree."

Wanting to make their celebration like New York's, keeping the spirit unspoiled, committees everywhere write to the Tree of Light for suggestions and help, and to have their plans O. K.'d. How many lights for a fifty-foot tree? How big a star? What carols shall our school-children learn? What can we do for music, with no band and no piano? What can a rural community of four hundred do?

"We have no electric lights," writes a little woman on an island off South Carolina; "could we light our tree from a motor car?" And another town asks: "Is it possible to anchor a large tree safely, right on the brick pavement? There is no square in our town, and we must use the street if we want a central place."

"How can we interest our foreigners?" is asked frequently. "Could we ask them to sing some of their own songs?" One manufacturing city, at the eleventh hour, invited its Italian colony to give an Italian Christmas carol, and, though the request came too late, the leaders said: "Next year we will have a trained chorus to take part with you, for this is the first time we Italians have been asked to be in anything in the city!"

"Please tell us what to do first," says a little town of eight thousand, "and give us as many details as possible, for we've never attempted anything of this sort and we must succeed." So far as the New York committee can learn, no community tree has ever been a failure, though of course a second or third celebration is carried out with greater ease, and each year more people become interested. And no town that has ever had a community tree has abandoned it; one city skipped one Christmas, and then started all over with greater success than ever.

Each year the Tree of Light plans, not to outdo its last party, to have a bigger tree, with more lights, and spend more money, but to make the celebration more and more of the people and by the people. After the first two years, the committee has planned each December some special feature, trying it out in New York, to pass on to other cities. In 1914 this was the Peace Hymn, written by a Portuguese clergyman to the tune of "America." While all Europe was fighting, the thousands around the Tree of Light sang a song for universal peace, led by a Mohawk Indian in his native dress. And now this hymn is a part of every celebration.

"Say," asked a rough sailor of a lady distributing copies of the words of the peace hymn, "you won't think I'm religious if I ask you for one, will you?"

"Of course not!"

A little later he was back with: "Say, lady, d'ye think the boys on the old ship 'd think I was religious if I took 'em back for them to sing?"

"Of course not," and she gave him all she had. Without a word he stuffed the roll into his blouse and was gone in the crowd.

In 1915 the special feature was a theater party for every one. In Madison Square the Portmanteau Theater set up its portable stage and gave a Christmas fantasy, a pantomime introducing at its climax the gleaming star on the Tree of Light. And this year town after town will present this same fan-

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tasy of "The Seven Gifts," teaching indirectly the true spirit of Christmas giving. The feature of 1916 is to be the singing of New York's community chorus.

And in return for the suggestions sent out, splendid suggestions come from the branches to the parent tree—that the words of the carols be printed on the programmes in very large letters or thrown on a screen where all may see; that the tree be sprinkled, so that it will be covered with icicles; that various groups of singers approach the square from all directions, singing as they come—New York means to try this, borrowing the plan from a little town in the South, where each Sunday-school arranged a route, stopping to sing carols to hospitals and shut-ins, and all meeting at the tree.

One town with many foreigners suggested stretching banners of welcome, in several languages, over the streets leading to the square. Several places have given tableaux or a pageant; the three Wise Men in Oriental robes, if they do nothing more than approach slowly, looking at the star, add an artistic touch. A city in North Carolina, where a circus happened to be wintering, borrowed its camels for the procession of the Wise Men.

It is an easy matter for any town to have a tree. Once started, it grows of itself and spreads till the whole community is imbued with the spirit. Some woman suggests it to her club, a merchant to the chamber of commerce, and the thing is off. Boy Scouts and Camp-Fire Girls, school-children, choirs of all the churches, all sorts of clubs, hurry to offer their services. Lighting companies sometimes string wires and furnish lights without charge. Frequently railways haul trees free if they must come from a distance. The newspapers always help enthusiastically, and the feeling of cheer and good fellowship spreads out, enveloping the entire city.

And, however great the help to individuals, however great the encouragement to the lonely of heart, the greatest value in these celebrations is the community spirit they arouse. Instead of boxing Christmas up in the family, limiting it to me and my wife and my son John and his wife, and gifts just for us four, the community tree brings to all the city its message of good will and friendliness and gladness. It is a sort of joint-stock enterprise undertaken by public subscription, the dividends being the pleasure afforded to a multitude of people. For no one is host and no one is guest. It is "all of us's tree!"

ENGLISH OPINION AS TO AMERICA

BY JAMES N. HALL

Mr. Hall is the author of the book called "Kitchener's Mob," and he has also written some of the best magazine articles that have appeared in American periodicals.—THE EDITORS.

FOR the past month a friend and myself have been quietly taking soundings of English sentiment toward America, tracing the channels where it runs deepest and kindliest, and plotting the shallows where the waters swish and swirl in a smother of angry foam, to the endless refrain of "Too proud to fight!" To have made such an investigation two short years ago, when England was the summer playground of thousands of our fellow-countrymen, would have been a needless waste of time and energy. There may be many of those same fellow-countrymen of ours who will say even now, "Soundings of English sentiment? Bless my soul! Don't we know England?" to which we reply, with all the sincerity of conviction, "Indeed, you do not!" These gentlemen or ladies would be surprised, as we have been, at the change of attitude toward America wrought in these people since the troubled days of August, 1914. Even that incorrigible Speed family, who used to klaxon their impetuous way from John O'Groat's to Land's End, could not fail to note it. Yes, it is even so well defined as that; and it is because the American people generally have lost touch with England that we have thought it worth while to set down these war-time observations.

"Tell them for us that we are with them, heart and soul," was the parting instruction of friends at home as we started upon our adventures. That, in brief, seemed to us America's message to England. We are not speaking, of course, for our neighbors of

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Celtic extraction, nor yet for those whose spiritual home is in the Fatherland. But for the others, the great bulk of America's millions, we do not think we are far wrong in saying that they have a warm and hearty sympathy for England. However, our opinions may be clouded by our prejudices. It is enough to say that we arrived at the land of our ancestors fully convinced that we were justified in extending the hand of fellowship, and expecting to receive a hearty pressure in return.

Our too sanguine hopes have, alas! been shattered. We have talked with the butcher, the baker, the munition maker. We have smoked our pipes with artists and artisans, chatted with politicians and porters, with literary men and licensed victualers, in our desire to gain a comprehensive view of the, to us, vital question, "What do the English people think of us?" With what result? As we examine a cross-section of English sentiment we find unmistakable evidence of the fact that since the war America has sailed far into the north of English opinion.

Personally we have no complaint to make. We have been the recipients of the most delightful and courteous hospitality, and this at a time when every home, high and low, is under its cloud of sorrow or anxiety. But, speaking in our capacity as self-appointed representatives of the American people, the hand of fellowship extended to us has been a limp and coldly tolerant one. "Oh! Americans?" is the polite and inevitable comment of our English cousins; and the frigid, rising inflection conveys a world of meaning now that we know its import.

In the beginning we made a most amusing error. Upon being told of our recent arrival from overseas, our English friends have frequently remarked, "But it seems to me that you are *very* courageous people, coming to England at a time like this!" To which we would reply, quite naïvely: "Oh, not at all. You British have made traveling quite as safe as in normal times. We felt not the slightest uneasiness." Thus we paid a sincere and at the same time a pretty compliment to the sons and daughters of the superb Mistress of the Seas. And never for a moment did we suspect the guile behind that observation, delivered so casually, until a fellow-countryman enlightened us. "Good Lord, man!" he said to me; "don't you see that they are poking fun at you? You belong to a nation that is too proud to fight. They are rubbing it in." And then we did see, and we blushed for shame at our simplicity.

Perhaps it is unwise to make broad generalizations when one has only a few score of specific instances upon which to base them. But English sentiment toward America is so much of a piece that the temptation so to do is great. We have unquestionably lost caste. That is the opinion of a man whose influence is as broad as the Empire—an opinion reluctantly but frankly expressed in reply to an earnest appeal for candor. I did not "interview" him. Therefore the following report of our conversation is not a verbatim one. But, in substance, it is precisely that which took place in his pleasant book-lined study not two weeks ago.

He. I wouldn't say that we are unfriendly toward America. We are too closely bound to you in a thousand ways ever to be that. But there is no denying the fact that we have been surprised and hurt at your attitude of aloofness.

I. Won't you be more specific? We want to know just how we have offended.

He. Well, there is the matter of Belgium.

I. I was expecting you to say that. Do you mean that we should have protested at the outset, because of the violation of Belgian neutrality?

He. I am not sure that I can make it clear, just what I do mean. We know that America was placed in a most difficult position. We are not unmindful of your large foreign-born population. Furthermore, you had no precedents to guide you in making a decision, and I doubt if England would have acted differently had she been placed in your predicament. But what a magnificent opportunity for America to have set a precedent! Frankly, we more than half expected that you would do it. You have always been fair in your dealings with small nations, and this cannot be said of England. But you see a different England now. Another Boer War would be impossible, utterly impossible! America, on the other hand, is the idealist of nations, which is all the more reason why you should have taken a firm stand at this time. You have lost a great opportunity. I wonder what history will say of you?

I. I wonder.

He. Then the German atrocities in Belgium and France. Your silence there is a very sore spot with us.

I (*vehemently*). But we have protested!

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I wish that you knew, as I do, how completely the Nation is a unit in abhorring and condemning Germany's policy of ruthlessness.

He. But, my dear young man, of what value to the world is all of your abhorring and condemning if you keep it to yourselves? The Allies were really jealous for you. They expected and believed that America would take the lead for all neutral nations. I must confess that we are sorely disappointed.

I (*weakly*). Surely you appreciate our position. At first, when we were receiving mutually incriminating evidence from both England and Germany, we were at a loss to know what to believe. With regard to the atrocities, every American felt it to be his duty—and no Englishman, I am sure, would deny that it was his duty—to keep an open mind on the question till all the evidence was in.

He. "Till all the evidence was in"—that is just the point. Of course you could not have based any action on purely newspaper evidence. But after the publication of the Bryce report—you think very highly of Lord Bryce, I believe, and justly so. Do you know he was a very decided pacifist before he made those investigations for the Government? And now—well, he looks at it differently.

There was a momentary interruption, and the conversation was diverted into other channels. It was my province to have brought it again to the question under discussion. But I felt decidedly worsted. I felt, and feel, that England is right, at least with regard to the atrocities, and that we are wrong in trying to defend ourselves behind a shoddy breastwork labeled "Strict Neutrality." Therefore I said nothing further upon the point, and the great Englishman courteously accepted my silence as an indication that the subject was closed.

That we are not living up to our traditions as a nation of idealists was an opinion frequently expressed during the course of many similar conversations. Odd as it may seem, our mismanagement in Mexico is looked upon as an evidence of America's real desire always to play fair with the smaller nations at our doors; to keep hands off, and to let them settle their own difficulties, even at the cost of serious inconvenience at home and the loss of National prestige abroad. This being true, it follows, illogically perhaps, that Englishmen cannot understand, and will never succeed in understanding, why we have maintained silence on the moral issues involved in the great war.

It is true that the question, "What will America do?" is no longer a live one, now that it is certain we shall do nothing. But the feeling of disappointment and chagrin is as keen as was that of expectation in the early days of 1915. The more thoughtful Englishman is inclined to make excuses for us. Not so the man in the street. We have had unlimited opportunities for getting at his point of view, which is a most curious one. "America ought," he says, "to have joined forces with the Allies at the beginning of the war as a moral protest against the violation of Belgian neutrality. Certainly you should have done so after the atrocities in Belgium and France and the sinking of the Lusitania. But I think that we should have resented your interference, for you would have had to be reckoned with in the ultimate negotiations, and there are more than enough fingers in the pie as it is. And then, of course, you have no army or navy, so what help could you have been? But you pretend to be a Christian nation, and you do nothing but look on while we fight your battles for you."

This is really typical of what the "lower middle class" Englishman thinks of us. It savors somewhat of sour grapes. England is spending men and treasure like water, while America is reaping the benefits of neutrality on an unprecedented scale. To put it briefly, misery likes company.

Our cross-section of English sentiment is a cross-section of English society as well. We have not scorned the opinions of men who happened to be somewhat sketchily clad, with soiled neck-handkerchiefs concealing yet more badly soiled undergarments. We have not ignored the costers, the navvies, the teamsters, nor passed by that most popular of all workingmen's clubs, the public house. We know that these hard-working, hard-drinking men make up the bulk of the nation. Although their opinions were rather muddled at times, particularly between the hours of seven and nine, when they were quenching an all-day thirst in enormous quantities of ale and porter, they leave no room for doubt as to their attitude. It may be thought unfair that I choose a London bootblack as their spokesman; but the deliberate judgment of my friend and myself is this: that the London bootblack is surpassed only by the London policeman in his ability to talk learnedly upon any subject under the sun. He

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is literally the man in the street, and an accurate barometer of what an Englishman would call "lower class sentiment." I have in mind an exceptionally eloquent member of this ancient profession, who gave me a shine and a very candid personal opinion of the American people, all for tuppence. Every now and then he would leave off polishing for a moment, and look up, sidewise, from his kneeling posture. "Mind you," he would say, "you arsked me. I ain't a-arguin' against you individu'lly. It's President Wilson 'oo's to blime. That's my private opinicn. Am I right?" His parting thrust, delivered with good-humored but none the less real sarcasm, was an admirable summing up of his view. "You Yanks ain't 'arf a plucky lot," he said. "W'en you goin' to send the 'Uns another strong note?"

At the very rock bottom of the social scale—although with my crude notions about art I am reluctant so to regard him—is the pavement artist, who sits cross-legged as of old beside his lurid chromos in crayon. His subjects keep fairly well abreast of the times. There are fewer landscapes in these days and more portraits. In his gallery one sees all the popular heroes and all the popular scapegoats, and among the latter is our poor Uncle Samuel, a ghastly caricature, with a sadly bedraggled eagle, impotently screaming, "Too proud to fight!" perched on his finger.

With the results of our investigations carefully noted down, I might go on at great length citing instance after instance, quoting opinion after opinion, in this attempt to show with what regard we are held in England. I have carefully avoided the words Briton and British, for we have made no inquiries in Scotland, Ireland, or Wales. These would but amplify, after the same fashion, the ones already given. The great majority of thinking Englishmen, those who read our reviews and books, study our politics, watch our progress, have, doubtless, a great deal of sympathy for us. They agree in saying that they are not at all sure that England would have done other than we have done. And yet they pay us the compliment of adding that they expected better things of America than they would expect of their own land. Is this anxiety for our moral welfare wholly vicarious? Our fellow-countrymen will be skeptical. At times we ourselves have misgivings. There is this to be said, however: Englishmen who take this attitude think that they are sincere in it. They are trying to be fair, but there is no doubting their bitter disappointment because of our strict neutrality policy.

As for the rest of the nation, they think of us with mingled feelings of arrogance and contempt. The might of vast new armies and the prowess of an unconquerable navy enable them to make comparisons wholly favorable to England. It is for this reason, rather than for any real or fancied lack of moral courage on our part, that our prestige has waned with the workaday Englishman. He believes more firmly than ever that "my father can lick your father." If "your father" is not belligerently inclined, so much the worse for him. The fact that he is but a timid onlooker at the ringside is an indication that he is a ninny and a milksop with no red blood in his veins.

What is the sum of the matter? The English people like us as individuals, but as a nation we are despised by some, ridiculed by others, and pitied by all. Whatever may be the reasons for their beliefs, in the eyes of all Englishmen Columbia is now a very tarnished gem of the ocean, and it will be long before she shines again with the old luster.

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JOFFRE: WHO HAD FAITH

BY BARTON BLAKE

AT Bourges, a sleepy French provincial capital well to the south of Paris, a captain of the French General Staff reported at the local headquarters.

This happened two years ago—late in August, 1914.

The captain from the General Staff fell in with a group of officers at Bourges who were ignorant of the exact course of events to the north of them. Their sole source of information was the official *communiqués*; and in those days things were happening fast.

The captain from headquarters gloomily acquainted his comrades with the situation as he saw it. In dark colors he painted a picture of the battle of Charleroi, of France invaded, of the lack of heavy artillery and of reserve munitions, of the army of the Republic in full retreat, of Paris menaced. Consternation grew as the captain went on. Hope faded. Till—

"What about the great General Headquarters?" asked one of the disheartened officers at Bourges.

"At the end of their rope."

Another silence, then—

"And what does the boss say?" some one inquired.

"Joffre?" asked the captain of the General Staff. Opening and shutting his eyes, raising his arms towards heaven in a gesture of total abandonment, the captain spoke in a frightened voice, as if he were uttering words of madness:

"Joffre? That man still believes that we'll win out!"

That was two years ago. The exact date of the conversation was August 26, 1914.

To-day some of the American correspondents in Paris are whispering among themselves that Joffre is a fallen idol; that almost as Poincaré's great popularity suffered when the Government moved from Paris to Bordeaux before the Battle of the Marne, so the cult of Joffre has gradually faded till now it is but the shadow of an enthusiasm.

Perhaps. It is true that I have seen the Generalissimo's engraved portrait, neatly framed in black, offered for two francs at one of the bookstalls that line the left bank of the Seine. Yes, perhaps Joffre's popularity is not so intense as it was six months ago. That, too, is possible.

But France does not forget that Joffre, the iron man of the Catalan foothills of the Pyrenees, the man of phlegm and perseverance, has been what with less justification Kitchener was called in the early days of the great war whose issue he has not lived to see foreshadowed.

Joffre—organizer of victory!

Joffre, who believed victory was coming, even on August 26, two years since.

Joffre, the general who for two weeks led an army in retreat, and so maintained the morale of that army that it turned its defeat into the victory he had believed in—a miracle of strategy and of the spirit!

France is still grateful to Joffre, but she accepts him to-day as a natural, a historical fact—a fact no more to be marveled at or to get excited about than the swiftness of the Rhône or the snow on the Alps.

Tourists marvel at the river scenery, at the mountain peaks; not so the men and women who work in the vineyards by the riverside and in the mountain hay-fields.

We foreigners marvel at the force of France's army, at the defense of Verdun during more than six months (a war in itself—a longer and more costly war than that of 1870), at the devoted service of French womanhood, at the heroism of an entire people put to all human tests.

But France accepts these facts as facts; she takes no great credit to herself.

When you look at France, at the French army, which is the French nation, you see Joffre as a kind of presiding spirit. When you see Joffre thus, you realize in his simple strength the eternal vigor and power of resistance which never expressed themselves in the French boulevard theater or the French novel for export, but which were always as French as, or rather more French than, these things.

The portrait of Joffre may be bought on the Quai Malaquais for less than forty cents; but there are many portraits of Joffre in France, and no one, after all, has need of his portrait.

It is only men who have passed or men who have not yet arrived whose portraits we have need of.

And Joffre, like France, is eternal.

Paris, August 26, 1916.

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THE NOVEL AND A FEW NOVELS

FIRST NOTICE

NOT many years ago it was widely rumored that a young instructor at Yale was talking on literature to listening football, baseball, and rowing experts and making them forget the games for the time being. This rumor was discredited until it was learned that the subject of these talks was fiction. This made the report credible, but raised the question whether novels were proper subjects for college instruction. In his "Advance of the English Novel,"[1] Professor William Lyon Phelps dispels the incredulity and puts the doubters out of court. From the dry-as-dust point of view his discussions are worse than interesting; they are actually entertaining; much more entertaining than many of the stories he writes about. The style is far removed from the academic; it is informal and familiar talk; it occasionally drops into newspaperisms. But it is well-seasoned talk, full of good sense, wholesome feeling for moral values, and sound judgment. It deals frankly with the popular novelists. Dr. Phelps's appraisals are not based on the reports of sales, either great or small. He is impressed by "Ethan Frome," not by "The House of Mirth;" a line about "The Eyes of the World," which has "run away with the market," as they say in Wall Street, would have been sufficient; its omission is significant, but it would have added to the gayety of a somber autumn.

If there are those who think that the novel is a form of frivolity with a dash of immorality, Mr. Phelps's discussion will convict them of sin against light. He gives even a seasoned lover of fiction a new sense of the greatness and dignity of the novel in the literature of the world; its uncovering of the deeps of human nature; its disclosure of the heights to which men and women have climbed and the fathomless abysses into which they have fallen; its range of tragic experience and its sparkling and infinitely varied comedy; the vitality of its art; its immense significance as a history of the human spirit. Mr. Phelps does not set out to teach a philosophy of fiction; he lets fiction reveal itself in an account of English and American novels, delightfully unhackneyed, outspoken, and as humanly interesting as life itself; an admirable corrective of the ignorance, bad taste, and credulity which make hosts of good people the victims of stories manufactured for the trade, and a sound introduction to the novels of this or any other season.

Mr. Phelps defines a high-class novel as "a good story well told"—perhaps as adequate a brief definition as can be made. Novels are as various as men, and most of them are neither very good nor very bad; few of them strike the perfect balance of substance and form.

Dr. Holmes said that the young doctors know the rules and the old doctors know the exceptions, and the veteran novel reader recalls few novels in which plot and style are perfectly mated. He will read and re-read "The Three Musketeers" for its flash of swords and its rush of adventure and movement, and he will read and re-read "Pride and Prejudice" for its "still, small" style and the charming skill of its characterization.

Here, by way of illustration, is Miss Grace King's "The Pleasant Ways of St. Medard,"[1] in which the incidents are few, but the supreme adventure of life is reflected in one of those moments which bring into view a great and tragic change and are charged with character. Miss King has been from the beginning an artist of delicate and vital skill; her studies of character have both graphic interest and distinction, and her work has the atmospheric quality which is the special gift of the artist. The future historian who wishes to recall the romance of old New Orleans will read "Monsieur Motte," "Tales of Time and Place," "Balcony Stories," and find delight and the stuff of which history is made in the same place. The stories told and heard on the balconies in the leisure of the semi-tropical night preserve the "form and pressure" of a social life deeply influenced by French ideals and manners, in a style full of individual distinction. In "The Pleasant Ways of St. Medard" the fortunes of a family ruined in estate by the Civil War, but enriched in courage, elevation, loyalty to ideals, endeavoring to build on new foundations in a city wrecked in home and business but invigorated by a gallant courage, are described with a frankness which is saved

[1] The Advance of the English Novel. By William Lyon Phelps. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. $1.35.

[1] The Pleasant Ways of St. Medard. By Grace King. Henry Holt & Co., New York. $1.40.

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from hard realism by the illumination of qualities of spirit beyond the reach of poverty and care. The story of ruined hopes and wrecked ideals would be profoundly depressing if it were not told with exquisite tenderness and reverence; without spiritual insight it would have had the hardness and bleakness of pessimism; reported in its inward as well as its outward aspects, it is a romance of the spirit.

Miss King recalls the charm of an old social order in the moment of adjustment to new conditions; Mrs. Deland dramatizes, in the character of a young girl, the changes which are involved in what is called feminism. "The Rising Tide" [1] is a graphic study of a movement astir throughout the world and full of possibilities of good and evil. Frederica Payton is set in striking contrast to her surroundings; she lives in an ample house furnished in antiquated taste on a street once fashionable but now gone utterly to seed; she is the daughter of a father of a type which in the lurid imaginations of some radical feminists is supposed to be representatively masculine, and of a mother who is what the wicked modernists would call "utterly Mid-Victorian," a woman to whom what people would say is of supreme importance and whose rule of life is to copy her grandmother; and she is the sister of an imbecile who perpetuates the memory of his father's vices.

Against this repressing background and the suffocating atmosphere in which it is enveloped "Fred" is in revolt, and revolt to her vigorous temperament and alert, independent mind means outspoken antagonism and definite action. She is not only in revolt; she is in arms. She defies the conventions; she smokes, like many women, not because she likes it but because it outrages the conventions, she says "damn" when the occasion demands emphasis, she uses slang freely, she goes into the real estate business and defies the customary restraints in dealing with men. She has a fine, honest nature, but her taste is execrable; she indulges in all manner of banalities under the impression that she is asserting her freedom. She goes through many exciting experiences, and her tragedy lies in the fact that her relatives condemn her out of hand instead of trying to understand her, and that she does not understand herself. She is thoroughly sound and good, but a little intoxicated. Mrs. Deland always takes her art seriously, but she is always an artist, and "The Rising Tide" is a very interesting story, not in any sense a disguised tract. It abounds in wit, in those quick strokes which bring out character, in insight into the complexities of human nature. Mrs. Deland's extraordinary sanity is shown in this story, as in all her stories, by the sureness of her touch in the most delicate situations. She knows that human relations are deeper than legal contracts, and that to disregard the instincts is to violate the sanctity of the soul itself. Her art has enabled her to write about an agitating question without sacrificing dramatic interest, her intelligence has opened her eyes to the imminense significance of what is called feminism, her clear sense of values old and new and her humor have enabled her to separate the wheat of real advance from the chaff of eccentricity.

[1] The Rising Tide. By Margaret Deland. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. $1.35.

Mr. Hewlett has written the most uncompromising romances of our time—stories which elude the conditions of time and place and escape into a world of their own. He is as free of the moralities as some of the most modern novelists, but he does not pretend, as they do, to make realistic reports of an actual, existing society. In "Love and Lucy" [1] he is still a romanticist, but in a different sense; he writes about people who belong to what the English call the "upper middle class," a class assumed to be out of the range of romance. An able, clear-headed, cool-hearted barrister, whose monocle has a deadly frigidity, has married an unawakened girl, and they have lived together in amiable amity until the approach of middle life. Then, with the startling suddenness of an earthquake, the wife is kissed in a dim drawing-room by some one who comes up behind her. The kiss has no element of routine in it, but it does have the element of mystery. The wife thinks the husband has broken through his chilling reserve and finds her own nature answering with a little glow of passion. The kiss is repeated several times under different conditions, but it becomes clear that the husband is not the lover; a man of the type familiar to Mr. Hewlett's readers has appeared on the scene. As the story develops the husband discovers the charm of his wife through the eyes of this man, and becomes not only a husband but a lover. In the end a conventional marriage develops into a very happy romance, there is a catastrophe but no tragedy, no law is broken, and love comes into its own.

[1] Love and Lucy. By Maurice Hewlett. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. $1.35.

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BY THE WAY

Not many people nowadays save their old letters, it is to be feared, for the prevalence of the typewriter has robbed the majority of letters of their individuality, and busy writers now like to clear out their correspondence files every year or two. This fact makes additionally interesting the announcement that many family letters of Dr. Lyman Beecher and his famous children, Harriet Beecher Stowe and Henry Ward Beecher, have recently been collected by Lyman Beecher's great-granddaughter, Annie Beecher Scoville, of Stamford, Connecticut. These faded memorials of the past are to be embodied by her in a lecture to be called "A Story of Pioneer Life Told in Family Letters." It will deal largely with the life of the days when Ohio and Indiana were still on the frontier.

The Morris Plan for making loans to small borrowers, which has been described as "the helping hand, incorporated," recently held its second Convention. Twenty-eight new companies operating the Morris Plan have been formed within the past year, making fifty-three altogether now in existence. The companies have made loans aggregating $22,000,000 to 172,500 borrowers. Many stories of rescues from loan-sharks were told at the Convention. One workman who had been paying $19 a month for interest alone to loan-sharks got free from them through the Morris Plan and is now paying up both principal and interest in fifty-two installments at $3 a week.

A writer of rejected manuscripts tells in the Contributors' Club of the "Atlantic Monthly" some of the reasons for his lack of success. Ten years ago his manuscripts were returned because they did not "quite compel acceptance;" a little later they "lacked ginger;" then editors wanted "a little more pep, please;" then his contributions did not have the "punch;" and now the long-suffering writer gets his offerings back with the comment, "Excellent of their kind, but we prefer stories with more '*kick*'!" His letter to the Contributors' Club seems to have had all the desirable elements which his earlier efforts lacked, for it was published!

There was a time, says "Shipping Illustrated," when it was the ambition of wealthy travelers with leisure at their disposal to make the long and difficult journey up the Yangtze Gorges in China. It was then a feat to be remembered. Now the construction of specially built steamers for this perilous navigation has made the trip safe and feasible. Eight of these steamers are at present successfully making the run through these wonderful gorges.

Even on the other side the problem of how to get attention at a popular restaurant exists, as the following amusing dialogue from "London Opinion" indicates: "Diner—'That man at the round table gets much better food and attention than I do. I shall complain to the manager. Where is he?' Waiter—'He's the man at the round table, sir.'"

Discoursing on "Methods of Putting" in the "Golfers' Magazine," Harry Vardon tells of an eccentric player who holed several long putts with his driver. "Look here," said his opponent, a man steeped in the traditions of St. Andrew's, "do you use that thing for short putts as well?" "Short putts?" repeated the local eccentric. "Haven't I had a short putt yet? No, of course I haven't. Well, I always take this for short putts"—and, diving to the bottom of his bag, he produced an ordinary household hammer! Vardon once imitated this extremist by having a "rather foolish-looking club" made for himself; it was only a foot long, and he used it in the days when he was "about the worst putter in the world."

Archdeacon Stuck in "Ten Thousand Miles with a Dog Sled" pays a feeling tribute to his best dog, Nanook. The dog loved to play a game of "toe-treading" with his master; and whenever Nanook won he "would seize my ankle in his jaws and make me hop around on one foot, to his great delight." He was a wise dog, and knew in advance just where the party would stop for the night, infallibly recognizing a good camping-place and lifting up his voice in delight. Cold meant little to him. Fifty, sixty, seventy below zero, all night long at such temperatures he would sleep contentedly. "He would stand and take any licking you offered and never utter a sound but give a bark of defiance when you were done, and he would bear you no ill will in the world and repeat his offense at the next opportunity."

Nanook learned to open a gate, contrary to orders. One day, says Archdeacon Stuck, when this happened, "I picked up a stick and gave him a few sharp blows with it. Then I said, 'Now, you stay in here; I'll give you a sound thrashing if you do that again!' The moment I loosed his collar the dog went deliberately to the gate, pulled out the wedge with his teeth, lifted the latch and opened the gate, then turned round and said to me, 'Bow-*wow*-wow-wow-*wow!*' It was so pointed that a passer-by who had paused to see the proceedings said to me, 'Well, you know where *you* can go to! That's the dog-gonedest dog I ever seen!'"

Nanook's end was pathetic. Mortally hurt by a misguided horse's kick, "Nanook knew perfectly well that it was all over with him. When I put my face down to his and said 'Good-by,' he licked me for the first time in his life. In the six years I had owned him and driven him I had never felt his tongue before, though I had always loved him best of the bunch."

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